

# The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS, STUDENTS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY

*Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine*

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## CONTENTS

	PAGE
Higher Education and Training for Citizenship, by Dr. George F. Zook - - - - -	37
The Study of Civics. Report of a Committee to the American Political Science Association - - - - -	42
The National Council Again, by Prof. E. Dawson - - - - -	46
Projects in Citizenship, by R. W. Hatch - - - - -	50
Reference Studies in Oriental and Early European History to 1700, by Wm. R. Lingo, (to be continued - - - - -	59

Program of Second Annual Meeting of National Council for Social Studies, 49; Book Reviews, edited by Prof. J. M. Gambrill, 64; Recent Historical Publications, listed by Dr. C. A. Coulomb, 65; Historical Articles in Current Periodicals, listed by Dr. L. F. Stock, 66.

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## Higher Education and Training for Citizenship

BY GEORGE F. ZOOK, SPECIALIST IN HIGHER EDUCATION, UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION

In the modern world universities and colleges are indispensable. Through them we hope to maintain and develop our present enviable culture, economic resources and democratic citizenship. These virtues and material advantages may be realized in such degree and in such measure as American citizens invest their lives in educational preparation and the nation's resources in the support of education, including higher education. Colleges and universities therefore exist to raise the standard of living, to elevate the level of American citizenship, and to increase the measure of popular culture. Every higher institution ought definitely to be contributing these three factors to the lives of their students, no matter what courses of study they may be pursuing.

Raising the standard of living through higher education means the training of young men and women to become leaders in industry, agriculture, business and commerce, which have long ago passed out of the simple elementary stages into the complexity of modern economic life. It means the preparation of persons who through the possession of expert knowledge are able to increase the production of goods and cause the most economic distribution of them. It means the training of men who can solve nature's problems and harness natural resources for the benefit of society.

Just as material production waits on ability and education, so, too, does democratic government. The people have undertaken to govern the country through representatives, through direct participation and through the force of public opinion. It ought to be more axiomatic than it is that the people cannot solve intelligently our political, economic and social problems unless they understand them. These problems yearly grow more complex and difficult of correct solution. Every man or woman who attends a higher institution is called on to prepare himself to be not only a better producer but a better citizen.

Based on a high standard of living and effective democratic government is culture. Men and women universally aspire to an appreciation of what is best in life. Universities and colleges have always existed primarily for the encouragement of all these things. Important and fundamental as is technical and citizenship education, the promotion of culture should be the climax of any college education.

In this discussion, however, we are concerned with training for citizenship and the part which colleges and universities should have in it. The keen public

realization of the need for training in citizenship was one of the legacies of the Great War. The situation had been appreciated before those fateful days, but the presence of hyphenated citizens in the United States was concrete evidence of the need of citizenship training which stirred the people into speedy, though sometimes ill-advised action. We have witnessed, therefore, a series of more or less unrelated Americanization experiments, which have undoubtedly done considerable good, but which have borne some of the marks of emotional hysteria. We have now passed out of the war's zealous fervor into the duller but more important days of peace. We ought, therefore, to deal very carefully with a matter so significant for good or ill as the proper training of college students to undertake the duties of American citizenship.

In its broadest sense training in citizenship would, of course, include the whole field of education. It would mean training young people for the most effective individual and social use of their physical, mental and moral powers. A discussion of this subject in this limitless sense is undoubtedly in place upon some occasions, but inasmuch as this would include the whole range of social policy I prefer to strip the subject of some of its wider aspects and to confine myself to something more concrete. I do this in part because I am convinced that we have already suffered by the vagaries that naturally arise when we apply the term citizenship training to something so wide and consequently so indefinite as the whole scheme of human education. I shall therefore eliminate from my discussion all further reference to physical education and even to ethical education, important as the latter is in the making of good citizens. The home and the church exist for that purpose, although of course it is right and proper that schools and colleges, especially those controlled and supported by religious denominations, should give the matter great consideration. What we are here concerned with is that knowledge which leads to the correct solution of public questions; that training which assists people to vote intelligently; which enables them to form intelligent opinions on local, state, national and international problems, in order that this public opinion may be brought to bear on our elected representatives and on all those who are in any way concerned with public administration. The matters I refer to are our increasingly complex social, economic, political and international questions

which vex the best minds but which by the establishment of a democracy we have boldly referred to the people for their solution. The common weal of the nation and the world is bound up in the correct solution of them. Material and cultural progress waits upon the development of public intelligence on public questions.

Training for citizenship has in recent years been taking definite shape in the elementary and secondary schools. This movement has resulted in increased attention to community civics as well as to state and national civics. The courses in history have been overhauled repeatedly with the idea of emphasizing those portions which contain the living past. Careful selections have been made in the field of literature for social as well as cultural reasons. Definite citizenship programs consisting chiefly of history, civics, and problems of democracy have been evolved by various committees representing prominent national associations. On these programs of study there is now substantial agreement and progressive schools are everywhere hastening to adopt them. Citizenship training in the schools, both elementary and secondary, has therefore received much thought and attention, and I think it may fairly be said that it is now approaching a satisfactory solution.

In colleges and universities training for citizenship has by no means received so much conscious attention during recent years as in the secondary schools. By this I do not mean to say that it has been neglected, because, although there has been no organized development of citizenship training, it is a fact that college men and women have had such training as to enable them to take an outstanding part in the solution of public problems. To them the country has owed much of the wisdom displayed in national affairs throughout our history. In this connection it seems clear therefore that the presence of such a large proportion of higher institutions devoted to four years of training in the liberal arts and sciences has been a great national blessing. The country needs every man and woman who can afford to spend four years in college before taking up his or her technical or professional work. What I wish to say therefore seems upon first thought to apply less to the colleges of liberal arts and sciences than to the others. Even here, however, I am convinced that something about training for citizenship may profitably be said.

For some years it has been fashionable to define the objectives in the various fields of education and in accordance therewith to shape the educational program to suit the end in view. So long as one deals with such concrete objectives as the training of a doctor, lawyer, dentist, engineer or agriculturist, the problem of curriculum-making is simplified—in fact, as I hope to show later on, it has been too much simplified by having only a single objective in view. In the college of liberal arts and sciences, on the other hand, there is no such single dominating objective. We speak with something like equal emphasis of the development of cultural appreciation, the training of the mind, ethical growth, and now more recently

citizenship training, as being the objects of a liberal college education. Moreover, these objectives naturally lend themselves less easily to definition and delimitation than is the case in the technical and professional world.

Nevertheless I am quite convinced that college curricula need constant revision with that object in mind. I say constant revision because of changing local, state, national and world conditions. The things of culture are born slowly from generation to generation and are handed down to us for an eternal heritage. The world's problems, on the other hand, are forever outrunning our comprehension, and we need therefore constant readjustment of the citizenship program of study.

By accepting the limitations which I have placed on the discussion of citizenship training it at once becomes apparent that the departments of history, political science, economics and sociology are most concerned in any program of study for that purpose. Any observer of recent developments in American collegiate education is painfully aware of the increasing tendency to departmentalize and to develop an extensive system of subject matter courses without reference to such larger objectives as the development of culture and training for citizenship. This tendency sometimes becomes so prominent that it often appears that college professors forget that they should also be educators. In other words, it has become increasingly difficult to secure a well-considered consensus of opinion among college teachers on such larger objectives as we have in mind in this discussion.

That there is imperative need of it is indicated by a study of the curricula of colleges of arts and sciences. In a study of the "Requirements for the Bachelor's Degree" recently published by the Bureau of Education, Dr. Walton C. John reveals the fact that in fifty of the best state-supported colleges and universities the following requirements in semester hours obtain for the A. B. degree: Foreign language, 15.19; science, 11.48; social science, 10.55; English, 9.02; mathematics, 7.00; and philosophy and psychology, 7.00. In fifty of the best privately-supported higher institutions the requirements for the A. B. degree are as follows: Foreign language, 20.66; social science, 12.14; science, 11.44; English, 9.65; philosophy and psychology, 7.56; mathematics, 6.94; Bible, 6 semester hours.

It will be seen that in these institutions the social sciences, including history, political science, economics and sociology, occupy respectively third and second places, being exceeded by foreign language and science in the first case and by foreign language in the second case. It should be remembered that this is the condition obtaining in one hundred of the best-known and most progressive institutions in the country. An examination of the curricula of less-known and smaller colleges of liberal arts reveals the fact that these citizenship subjects do not by any means occupy so prominent a place in the college curriculum. In the summer of 1920 the Bureau of Education made a fairly extensive investigation of the

teaching of history and the social sciences in colleges and universities. The results of this investigation show that only 119 of the 158 colleges and universities which reported require one or more units in this field for entrance. The student is ordinarily allowed to offer the required unit or units from any field of history, but little or no attention being given to requirements in the other social sciences. In fact, students sometimes encounter considerable difficulty when they offer community civics, for example, for college entrance.

In college also the investigation reveals the fact that, especially in the smaller institutions, the social sciences occupy a relatively less prominent place than they do in the larger ones. Often a single professor occupies a whole settee, comprising the entire field of history, political science, economics and sociology. Needless to say some important fields are grossly neglected while others are entirely omitted. As a result, thousands of young men and women are annually turned out of our small colleges with fine cultural development but very inadequately trained to assume leadership in the solution of our local, state, national and international problems.

This situation becomes all the more apparent when it is remembered that a very large proportion of the graduates of small colleges go into teaching in the secondary schools. There they are very often called on to teach one or all of the courses offered in the fairly extensive history and social science program. It is a well-known fact that only a few States have laid down definite regulations concerning the preparation of teachers who undertake this work in the secondary schools. Consequently few colleges have established a definite program of subject matter preparation for those who are to be recommended for this field of teaching. Since we are now living in a day of objectives I believe that a sufficiently high proportion of the graduates of our colleges of arts and sciences will ultimately be called upon to teach one or all of the social sciences in the secondary schools as to make it highly desirable for each college to lay down a minimum program of subject matter preparation for prospective teachers in this field. We have, as I have already stated, arrived at a substantial agreement concerning what the citizenship curriculum in high schools should be. What we need now is for colleges and universities to train teachers to carry out that program. Failing this, we shall have little notion about the adequacy of our present high school program in citizenship training.

There are other fields for citizenship training in the colleges of arts and sciences to which I wish to draw your attention briefly. All of you are aware of the wonderful progress which has been made in prelegal, premedical, and especially in premedical education. Through the influence of the several professional associations State authorities have been induced to establish higher and higher standards of pre-professional work which must be done in high schools and colleges. It is quite natural that the character of prelegal work required by the several law schools should approximate very closely with the

best collegiate programs of study for training in citizenship. The fact that lawyers get this training accounts in part for the preponderance of civic leadership which we get from the legal profession.

In the field of premedical education, on the other hand, the situation is quite different. There the greatest progress has been made so that it is now the exception to find States which do not require two years of premedical education before licensing a doctor, and all reputable medical schools have a similar requirement.

Moreover, the character of required work has been rather definitely outlined by the Council on Medical Education, whose recommendations are carefully followed by the various medical schools. By the time a student has taken the *minimum* of studies from among the required subjects and the subjects strongly urged by the Council on Medical Education, he has but 5 hours left to devote to a third list of suggested electives which include the four citizenship subjects of history, political science, economics and sociology. As a matter of fact even this opportunity does not ordinarily exist because the premedical course as outlined at individual institutions seldom requires any social science and usually affords little if any opportunity to elect it. In the medical course itself it is needless to say that the entire attention of the student is absorbed in his medical education.

It might be worth while to pause briefly for comment on the ill effects of this situation. The cultural side of the medical student has been cared for to a considerable extent by the required courses in the natural sciences and by the inclusion of 6 hours of English, 6 to 12 hours of a modern foreign language, 3 to 6 hours of psychology, and 3 to 6 hours of advanced mathematics among the subjects required or strongly urged. The citizenship subjects, on the other hand, are not to be found in these groups.

When one stops to consider that the lone requirement in the field of the citizenship subjects made of a doctor who has spent four years in high school, two years in a college of arts and sciences, and four in a medical school, is a single college entrance unit chosen from the whole field of history and civics, I believe it will at once become apparent that our medical practitioners may be eminently well prepared to treat the body physical, but poorly equipped to render first aid to the body politic. We cannot afford to allow men who otherwise are leaders in the community, whose opinions are respected because of their standing, to guide the people falsely on questions concerning the common good. It is as easy for a medical man to be unfamiliar with the intricate questions facing our democracy as for anyone else.

Let us now turn to some consideration of the situation in the engineering schools. Happily a report of a committee of the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education made in 1918 summarizes the situation concerning citizenship training in engineering schools. In 42 courses of study leading to a civil engineering degree, 18 required no social sciences whatever, while 21 required general economics, 2 political science, 1 sociology, and 1 industrial history.

In the same number of mechanical engineering courses of study, 13 had no requirements in citizenship subjects, 21 required general economics, 3 political science, 1 sociology, and 1 industrial history. In electrical engineering courses of study, 14 had no requirements of citizenship subjects, 21 required general economics, 3 political science, 1 sociology, and 1 industrial history. Among the 23 electrical engineering schools which have requirements in citizenship subjects, 1 school requires 12 hours, 1 six hours, 3 six hours, 3 five hours, 1 four hours, 8 three hours, and 6 two hours. The amount of social science required in other engineering courses of study is similar to that in electrical engineering.

From this review it will be seen that the citizenship training subjects have made some headway in engineering schools, but it is by no means uniform or sufficient. Dr. C. R. Mann is correct when he observes in his study of Engineering Education that "languages, economics, and social sciences are generally treated as 'extras' in (engineering) curricula, and are as generally regarded as superfluous 'chores' by the students."

This situation is, I am convinced, largely the result of faulty teaching and poor organization of the citizenship subjects. In our large universities it quite often happens that young instructors without adequate appreciation of what they ought to attempt to do are thrust before sections in economics containing engineering students. It is no wonder that the discussion often seems to center around economic theories which the student with difficulty relates to life about him.

For this reason and because the faculties of engineering schools have lately appreciated the close relation existing between engineering and business and in order to prepare engineering graduates to undertake managerial positions, there has been a growing tendency to substitute courses in business economics, business management and special engineering economics for the more liberal courses in social science. This is in effect a weakening of the citizenship subjects since the substitution is made more for the technical value than for the value in training engineers for more intelligent participation in our government.

Turning now briefly to the curriculum of the agricultural colleges, it may be recalled that in the Morrill act establishing the colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts it was stated that "the leading object shall be, without excluding other scientific and classical studies and including military tactics, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts . . . in order to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions of life."

In accord with this spirit one finds that about one-tenth of the usual agricultural college curriculum is elective. An additional one-sixth is devoted to non-technical subjects. The social sciences, including education and psychology, occupy a little less than 5 per cent of the curriculum. Almost without excep-

tion the agricultural colleges require some work in the social science group. The total amount varies from 3 to 23 hours, with a median requirement of 8 hours. Here, as in engineering, there has been considerable tendency of late to substitute courses in practical economics for the more general ones. Accordingly, at present one finds in the agricultural curriculum such courses as rural economics, farm management and marketing.

One might elaborate the situation concerning the citizenship subjects by examining the curricula of other schools and colleges in our large universities. I trust that enough evidence has been adduced, however, to show that few higher institutions have conscientiously adopted a program of citizenship training, and that the amount of such training which students may secure varies all the way from the minimum of little or none for medical students up to the extensive courses enjoyed by a large proportion of the graduates from colleges of liberal arts and sciences. Where so little opportunity for citizenship training exists as in the premedical courses of study and in about one-half of the engineering schools, it seems to me clear that courses in this field should be inserted in the curriculum. For as Dean Evarts B. Greene said before the Association of American Colleges two years ago:

"Some of these young men are going to be engineers and some of them are going to be physicians and some of the young women are going to be teachers and some are going to do other things; but whatever their choice of profession, they all have in common this vocation of citizenship."

The faculties of our colleges and universities are therefore confronted with the question of making up a curriculum of citizenship training for students in arts and sciences and in the several professional and technical schools. The matter is not a simple one because of peculiar local conditions, lack of appreciation on the part of many faculty members of its importance, and departmental difficulties. One or all these difficulties often exist in such aggravated form as to result either in the elimination of all requirements in this field or in a one-sided program of study. We have not as yet succeeded in getting from local faculties or departments in the field of the social sciences a balanced program of study in citizenship studies, especially for professional and technical students.

Probably we cannot expect such a balanced program so long as we leave it wholly to local faculties. During the war the Committee on Education and Special Training of the War Department outlined courses in war issues and war aims which cut across departmental walls and attempted to establish something that approached a uniform course in citizenship. The experiment did not have a fair trial, but it had a very perceptible effect on a number of our higher institutions which either continued similar courses after the war or established courses in civilization required of all students.

In times of peace we cannot expect so close an approach to uniformity in citizenship courses as was

attempted with the S. A. T. C., but I believe the experience had its lessons which we have been very slow to learn. We need some relief from the unbalanced program of citizenship training or lack of such program, which, on account of the conditions I have mentioned, now obtain in a large proportion of our higher institutions. We cannot expect to secure this relief by leaving the matter wholly with the local institutions. I believe, therefore, that it is incumbent upon such national associations as the American Historical Association, the American Political Science Association, and the American Sociological Society, which have for many years devoted so much attention to the curriculum of citizenship training in the secondary schools, to give us likewise a minimum program or programs of study for the higher institutions. Perhaps this would not be easy to do for the usual graduates of colleges of arts and sciences. It ought, however, to be both possible and desirable to suggest such a program for college students who will teach the citizenship subjects in the high schools. The same thing can be done for medical, engineering, and agricultural students, the program being varied sufficiently to meet the particular group of state and national problems which such professional and technical students would encounter.

Naturally, doubt as to whether such a thing can be done immediately arises. I believe it can be done because it is being done in nearly every institution of higher learning. Colleges of arts and sciences have curricula for citizenship training though they do not usually go under that name. Systems of majors and minors provide some program of study for the social science teachers in the high schools. Engineering faculties lay down certain social sciences in their lists of required subjects. So, too, do the agricultural faculties. Only the doctors seem to have side-stepped citizenship subjects almost completely. What these faculties do in almost every one of our higher institutions competent representatives from several of our national associations dealing with the social sciences ought to be able to do much better.

Action of this kind would have several important advantages. In the first place, it ought to result in a well-balanced program of study for citizenship training. Any committee working on this problem would inevitably recognize that such a program should be drawn from the subject matter represented by a number of college departments. It would not be a program merely of economics, or of history, or of political science such as is now too often the case.

In the next place it would be a program made up by those who are best able to judge as to what it should contain. We do not ordinarily trust a farmer to build a cantilever bridge nor a fisherman to fit steam pipes. So I believe that engineering, agricultural, medical, yes, even liberal arts faculties, should have the benefit of the expert advice of those who have spent their lives in the citizenship studies. A program of citizenship training suggested by them ought to clarify local difficulties and come with considerable weight of authority to those who must necessarily be concerned with this matter.

Finally the selection of subject matter for the citizenship training program from several fields of study would help to break down the too arbitrary barriers now jealously erected between departments. It would cause faculty members to keep in mind the larger objective as well as the subject matter of the course; it would create for us a group of teachers devoted primarily to the training of college students for leadership in civic affairs. When these things have been accomplished perhaps we may then look forward confidently to the day when to train a few graduate students in specialized fields of study will no longer be more honored than to train college students for the intelligent solution of our nation's manifold and complex social and economic problems.

In this discussion I have used the term citizenship training in a narrower sense than is sometimes done. The program of study to which I have referred includes those things in the realm of public affairs with which college men and women should be thoroughly acquainted. We need, however, not only intelligent citizens but good citizens. To the knowledge of public affairs gained in the class-room should be added zeal to act. Such inspiration is born in part from knowledge itself but it must be powerfully supplemented by the church, the home, the world's good literature and every other influence that teaches men the ultimate goal in life.

The Iowa State Department of Public Instruction has issued a "Syllabus for the Study of American History in the High Schools of Iowa" (p. 40), prepared by a committee composed of Professor Louis B. Schmidt, chairman, and Ray Latham, Bessie L. Pierce, and Olive Stewart. The syllabus contains an elaborate outline of American history and references to standard works. The committee recommends that six to eight weeks be devoted to the period down to 1789; from twelve to fourteen weeks to that from 1789 to 1860; and from fourteen to sixteen weeks to that from 1860 to 1920.

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# The Study of Civics<sup>1</sup>

A REPORT MADE TO THE PITTSBURGH MEETING OF THE AMERICAN POLITICAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION, DEC. 27, 1921, BY A COMMITTEE OF WHICH PROFESSOR WILLIAM B. MUNRO WAS CHAIRMAN, AND DISCUSSED BUT NOT ADOPTED BY THE ASSOCIATION.

The American Political Science Association, at its meeting in December, 1920, authorized the appointment of a committee to define the scope and purposes of a high school course in Civics, and to prepare an outline of topics which might properly be included within such a course. In compliance with this action the Committee submits the following suggestions and outline:

## SUGGESTIONS FOR A COURSE IN CIVICS IN HIGH SCHOOLS.<sup>2</sup>

The American Political Science Association believes that there is urgent need for an authoritative definition of the term *Civics*. Originally this term, as applied to high school instruction, was understood to include a study of American government and closely-related matters; but its scope has been so greatly broadened in recent years that it is now regarded in many quarters as including the whole range of the social sciences, economics, sociology, ethics and international relations, with the basic subject of American government thrust far into the background. The result is that high school instruction in the subject, by spreading itself in unguided fashion over so broad an area, has tended to become superficial and ill-organized. Too often it affords the pupil a mere smattering of many things, not articulated to each other or bound together by any central concept, and none of which is presented with sufficient thoroughness to make any lasting impression upon him. It is not the breadth of the range alone but the lack of co-ordination that impairs the educational value of the subject. The Association believes that this disintegration has been carried too far and that the time has come not only to establish the "outside boundaries" of Civics but to urge a more effective co-ordination of the topics included within these limits.

At the same time the American Political Science Association expresses its readiness to co-operate cordially with other groups which may be primarily interested in the high-school study of economics, sociology and history, or in the task of providing courses designed to cover in an introductory way the field of the social sciences. We believe, nevertheless, that the outline herewith presented includes the minimum essentials in political science.

This does not mean, however, that the scope of a school course in Civics should be strictly confined to the framework and functions of government. The aim of the course should not be to impart information but rather to give the pupil an intelligent conception of the great society in which he is a member, his relation to it, what it requires of him, how it is organized, and what functions it performs. From his study of Civics the pupil ought, accordingly, to learn something about the chief social and economic organizations and relations. Yet it should not be forgotten

that in the field of social studies all roads lead through government. No matter whether the topic under discussion be finance, banking, public health, poor relief, transportation, or labor problems, we must at all times reckon with governmental organization, policy and action as great factors in the situation. The study of governmental organization and the functions of public authority ought therefore to be the center or core of any high school course whose chief aim is to inculcate sound ideals of citizenship, to emphasize the duties of the citizen, and to afford any grasp of public problems.

It is only in this way that a course in Civics can be given the substance and definiteness which it must acquire if it is to hold a secure place among the advanced subjects of the high school curriculum. A single study which merely brings together a mass of loosely-organized topics drawn from the whole domain of government, economics, sociology and ethics can scarcely hope to have any high educational value. The topics, whatever they are, should be related to some central concept. A wisely-planned course in Civics can be made definite, homogeneous and thorough without being narrow or uninteresting.

The immediate problem is to impress upon the pupil the fact that he is a member of the community and ought to be an active, constructive member of it. The teaching of the subject ought to point continually towards civic duty as well as civic rights. Scope and methods should be adjusted to this purpose, which means that social and economic forces which directly affect the activities of citizenship ought to receive adequate emphasis.

It is not the function of a course in Civics to carry on any form of social, economic or political propaganda. Nevertheless the aim should be to develop an intelligent attitude towards questions of the day, hence no well-rounded study of civic activities can wholly avoid some controverted issues. Intelligent instruction can achieve the main purpose without allowing the study to degenerate into propaganda of any sort.

Three present-day tendencies connected with the teaching of Civics call for a word of comment. The first is a disposition to dispense with the use of a textbook, supplanting it by "socialized" recitations, "field work," and "visits to public institutions." However useful these things may be, they do not render a textbook superfluous, as has been pointed out by the committee on social studies of the National Education Association (Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 28, 1916, p. 62). A textbook is a positive and practically an indispensable aid to effective teaching no matter from what standpoint the subject of Civics is approached. "There may be exceptionally equipped and talented teachers who can do better without a

textbook than they would do if they followed explicitly any existing text. Even such teachers will be more successful if their pupils have in their hands a well-planned text; and the great majority of teachers are not prepared to organize courses of their own. The teacher who is not able to use a fairly good text and to adapt it to the needs of his pupils to their great advantage can hardly be expected to be capable of devising a course independently of a text that would in any sense compensate for the loss of the recognized value of the best texts available."

The second tendency is to give preference to textbooks which have been prepared by a local author and which lay special emphasis upon political, social and economic conditions in the immediate neighborhood. This emphasis is no doubt useful in providing an approach to more remote problems, but there is always a danger that in the zeal of acquainting the pupil with the conditions of his own state or community, the larger life of the nation and the problems of nation-wide scope may receive inadequate attention.

A third feature of high school work in Civics at the present time is the disposition of some school authorities to replace the systematic study of Civics by a course on "Problems of Democracy," or "Social Problems," or something of this kind. This action is based upon the idea that thereby the pupils may be brought directly into touch with the "live problems of the present day" instead of spending time upon the development and organization of political, economic and social institutions. The committee recognizes the value which attaches to the so-termed "problem method" in teaching; but it believes that no effective instruction in the problems of democracy can be imparted to high school pupils unless they are given an adequate background through the study of governmental organization and functions. To provide this background the course must be comprehensive and systematic, not a study of isolated problems.<sup>3</sup>

The appended outline indicates in a general way the *outside limits* within which, in the committee's judgment, the scope of a high school course in Civics ought to be kept if the instruction is to be made effective. The outline is, if anything, too broad. It is not intended to be a syllabus; it does not include *all the topics, or the only topics*, which come within the general field suggested.

The capable teacher can add, substitute, or omit as may be thought desirable. This outline is merely intended to indicate by its inclusions the sort of topics which, on a liberal interpretation of the subject, belong to the study of Civics and by its omissions the kind of material which, in the committee's judgment, does not belong there at all.

These topics are grouped under thirty-three headings. Some of them can be covered quickly; others will require more extended discussion. No attempt is made to apportion the amount of time that should be devoted to each, for this outline is not intended to be a plan of a course but rather a presentation of the topics out of which a course can readily be con-

structed. The individual teacher can decide, in the light of the time at his disposal, what may best be included and what omitted.

## OUTLINE

### PART I—THE AMERICAN ENVIRONMENT

#### I. MAN AND SOCIETY

Why men organize. The social instinct. The doctrine of evolution as applied to society. Heredity and environment. Individual and social heredity. The physical and the social environment of man. The chief social groups (family, tribe, community, state, etc.). Individual liberty and social control.

#### II. THE UNITED STATES

Geography as a factor in national life and progress. The chief geographical areas of the United States. The soil. Harbors and waterways. The newer territories. Alaska and the insular possessions. Influence of geographic features upon past development. Geography and the future.

#### III. THE PEOPLE, RACES AND RACIAL PROBLEMS OF THE UNITED STATES

The growth of population. How the population is now distributed. The drift to the cities, its causes, extent and results. Principal occupations of the people. Immigration; its history and causes. Nature of the immigration. Present racial distribution. The negro problem. Other racial problems. Assimilation. The effects of immigration, social, economic and political.

#### IV. THE AMERICAN HOME AND COMMUNITY

Importance of the family as a unit. Influence of the home in training for citizenship. Marriage as the basis of the family. The divorce problem. The community; what it is. How communities are formed. The needs and functions of the community. The community spirit. The community and the school. How the schools train for citizenship. The relation of good citizenship to community service.

#### V. ECONOMIC FACTORS AND ORGANIZATION

The economic needs of man. Economic motives. The subject-matter of economics. The consumption of wealth. Production. The factors in production. Land and natural resources. Rent. Labor. The division of labor. Is labor a commodity? Wages. How rates of wages are determined. Capital and interest on capital. The forms of economic organization. Partnerships and corporations. Profits. Government as a factor in production. The distribution of wealth. Transportation as a factor in distribution. Exchange, value and price. Competition and monopoly. Natural monopolies. Freedom of contract. The institution of private property.

### PART II—AMERICAN GOVERNMENT

#### (a) *The Foundations of Government*

#### VI. THE NATURE AND FORMS OF GOVERNMENT

Definition of the state. Definition of government. The purpose of the state. Origin of the state. Various theories as to its origin. The basis of the state's authority. Classification of states. Relation

of the state to government. The branches of government. The functions of government. Characteristics of American government. Written constitutions. Separation of powers. Federalism.

#### VII. THE CITIZEN; HIS RIGHTS AND DUTIES

Who are citizens? How citizenship is acquired. Naturalization. The rights of the citizen. Are corporations citizens? Civil liberty; what it means and how it grew. Privileges which are not civic rights. The obligations of citizenship. Hindrances to good citizenship.

#### VIII. POPULAR CONTROL OF GOVERNMENT

The channels of popular control. Public opinion; its nature and limitations. The election of representatives. The appointment of officials. Election vs. Appointment. Appointments with and without confirmation. Partisan appointments. The spoils system. The rise of civil service. Nature of the civil service system. Its value and limitations.

Popular control through direct legislation and the recall. Origin and spread of the initiative and referendum. Direct legislation in practice. Merits and defects of direct legislation. The recall. The recall of judicial decisions.

##### (b) *The Electoral Mechanism*

#### IX. SUFFRAGE AND ELECTIONS

Citizenship and suffrage. Development of the suffrage. Woman suffrage. Present qualifications for voting. Educational tests. Taxpaying requirements. Disqualifications. How voters are registered. Nominations. History of nominating methods. The caucus, convention and primary. Merits and defects of the primary. Election methods. The ballot. The short ballot movement. The preferential ballot. Proportional representation. Corrupt practices at elections. Absent voting. Compulsory voting.

#### X. PARTY ORGANIZATION AND MACHINERY

Why political parties are formed. Nature and functions of political parties. History of American parties. What the leading parties stand for. Party platforms. The minor parties. Economic and social influences on party divisions. Party organization in nation, state and community. The machine. Rings and bosses. Party finance. Practical politics. How parties are financed. The reform of party organization.

##### (c) *Local and State Government*

#### XI. COUNTIES AND RURAL COMMUNITIES

Early types of local government. The county; its legal status, organization and officials. Duties of county officers. The reform of county government. City and county consolidation. The county manager plan. The New England town; its organization and the functions of its officials. The township. County districts. Incorporated communities. Problems of local government.

#### XII. CITY GOVERNMENT

Growth of cities. Relation of cities to the state. Municipal home rule. Different types of city charter. The mayor. The heads of city departments. Municipal officials and employees. Civil service in cities. The city council. Boards and commissions in cities. The reconstruction of city government. The

commission plan. Its extension, nature, merits and defects. The city manager. Other recent changes in city government.

#### XIII. MUNICIPAL PROBLEMS OF TODAY

City planning. Streets and public works. The protection of life and property. Parks and recreation. The city's share in public health and welfare problems. Congestion of population and its relief. New sources of revenue for cities. Other municipal problems.

#### XIV. STATE GOVERNMENT

The early state constitutions. How state constitutions are made. General powers residing in the states. The governor. Officials of state administration. The state legislature. Legislative procedure. The states as agents of the nation. Relations between the states. Full faith and credit. Extradition. Limitations upon the states. The reconstruction of state government.

##### (d) *National Government*

#### XV. THE NATIONAL CONSTITUTION

American government before and during the Revolution. The earlier attempts at union. The Confederation; its weakness. Preliminaries of the Constitution. Personnel of the convention. The convention's work. The compromises. General character of the Constitution. Methods by which it was adopted. Growth of the Constitution by amendment, interpretation and usage.

#### XVI. CONGRESS AT WORK

Organization of Congress. Merits and defects of the bicameral system. The Senate; its organization. Its special powers. Confirmation of appointments. Ratification of treaties. Impeachments. Its concurrent powers. Its influence. The House of Representatives. Method of election. Procedure. The Speaker. The committee system. Powers of the House. Relations between the Houses. The general powers of Congress. Congressional finance.

#### XVII. THE PRESIDENT AND HIS CABINET

Nature of the presidential office. Method of nomination. The college of electors. Why great and striking men are not always chosen. The President's powers. Appointments. The veto power. Other prerogatives. Relation of the President to Congress. The President's relation to his party. The Cabinet and the administration.

#### XVIII. THE COURTS AND THE LAW

Judicial organization in outline. The Supreme court. The subordinate courts. Jurisdiction of the federal tribunals. State courts. The common law. Statutory law. Equity. The jury system. Constitutional limitations relating to the administration of justice. Due process of law. The unconstitutionality of laws. The law's delays. Reforms in judicial administration.

### PART III—THE CIVIC ACTIVITIES

#### (a) *Economic*

#### XIX. NATURAL RESOURCES, CONSERVATION, AND THE PUBLIC DOMAIN

The chief natural resources; their value and the

danger of exhausting them. Conservation. The forest policy of the United States. National reservations. History of the public lands. Sales of land and the homestead system.

#### XX. THE AGRICULTURAL INTERESTS

Importance of agriculture. Chief types of agriculture in the United States. Agriculture and the law of diminishing returns. Exhaustion of the soil and its prevention. Relation of agriculture to transportation. The problem of agricultural credit. The federal farm loan banking system. Agriculture and the labor problem. The work of the department of agriculture. The state agricultural authorities. Experimental farms. The country life commission.

#### XXI. THE ENCOURAGEMENT AND REGULATION OF COMMERCE

Purposes of commerce. Local, interstate and foreign commerce. How commerce is regulated. The interstate commerce commission and its work. Railroads and the Sherman Act. The railroads in war time. The Transportation Act of 1920. The future of the railroads. Foreign commerce; its scope and value. Government aid to shipping. The shipping laws. The merchant marine; its history. The consular service. International commerce and international exchange. Foreign commerce and the tariff. The tariff policy of the United States.

#### XXII. INDUSTRY AND LABOR

Modern industrial organization. Corporations. Combinations in industry. The control of industrial combinations. The federal trade commission. The general relations of government to industry. Labor's part in the industrial order. History of labor organizations. The American Federation of Labor; its organization and program. Methods and policies of labor. Collective bargaining. The right to strike. The closed shop and the open shop. Conciliation and arbitration. Compulsory arbitration. Industrial accidents and employers' liability. Child labor laws. Minimum wage laws. The product of unemployment.

#### XXIII. CURRENCY, BANKING AND CREDIT

Money and its origin. The functions of money. The coinage of the United States. The double and single standard. Paper money. Legal tender. The functions of banks. National banking system. Federal reserve banks. Some practical operations of banking. The relation of credit to money. Credit and prices. Workings of the credit system.

#### XXIV. PUBLIC UTILITIES

Nature of public utilities. The need of public control. Franchises. Methods of public utility regulation. Public service commissions; their organization and powers. Public ownership; its merits and defects. American and foreign experience in public ownership. Public utility problems at the present day.

#### XXV. PUBLIC FINANCE

The cost of government. Taxation, its forms and incidence. Leading principles of taxation. Local taxes. State taxes. National taxes. Economic and social purposes of taxation. The division of the taxing power between national and state governments. Suggested reforms in taxation. Government expenditures. How appropriations are made. The new

national budget system. Public debts. Methods of public borrowing. Debt limits. How public debts are repaid.

#### (b) Social

#### XXVI. PUBLIC HEALTH

The chief problems of health protection. Quarantine. The prevention of epidemics. Vital statistics, their nature and use. Some instances of progress in preventive medicine. Public sanitation. Public water supplies. Milk inspection. The inspection of food and drugs. Housing regulations. The work of local health boards. State health organization. The U. S. Public Health Service.

#### XXVII. POOR RELIEF, CORRECTION AND OTHER WELFARE PROBLEMS

The problem of poverty. Old and new methods of dealing with it. The causes of poverty. Its prevention. Social insurance. Crime and its causes. Crime prevention. Prisons and prison reform. The care of mental defectives. Social amelioration and reform.

#### XXVIII. EDUCATION

The public school system. State and local school authorities. State control of education. Educational work of the national government. School finance. The newer demands in education. Vocational education and vocational guidance. The Gary system. Wider use of the school plant. Americanization.

#### (c) International

#### XXIX. NATIONAL DEFENSE

Defense as a function of government. Militarism. The causes of war. The prevention of war. Preparedness. The regular army. The national guard. The national army during the World War. America's part in the war. Universal military service. The navy. The problem of disarmament.

#### XXX. FOREIGN RELATIONS

The nature of international law. The control of foreign relations. The diplomatic service. Secret and open diplomacy. Treaties. Extradition. Outstanding features of American foreign policy. The Monroe Doctrine. American contributions to international law. The war and international relations.

#### XXXI. THE UNITED STATES AS A WORLD POWER

Traditional foreign policy. Why isolation is no longer possible. Relations with other American states. Relations with Europe. American interests in the Far East. Interests acquired during the war. Pending questions of foreign policy. The loans to European powers. Mandates and special privileges. Other diplomatic problems.

#### XXXII. THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

The idea of a league of nations in history. Purposes of the Versailles covenant. Its chief provisions. America's objections to the League. The League as a scheme of government. The League at work. What it has accomplished. The position of the United States in the new world order.

#### XXXIII. WORLD PROBLEMS AND DEMOCRACY

Results of the war on political, social and economic organization. The growth of radicalism. The soviet system. Plans for socialist commonwealths. Direct action. The reconstruction of government by consti-

tutional means. Can democracy solve the problems of today? American contributions to democracy in the past. The ideals of democracy. What America can contribute in the future.

The undersigned have given their general approval to the foregoing suggestions and outline in order that a tangible basis for further discussion and for improvements may be afforded. This general approval is not to be construed, however, as an unreserved endorsement, by any of the undersigned, of every item in either the suggestions or the outline.

<sup>1</sup> Reprinted from *The American Political Science Review*, Volume XVI, No. 1, February, 1922.

<sup>2</sup> These suggestions have reference to instruction in the third and fourth year of the regular high school course, and not to such instruction as is often given in earlier years under the name of community civics or elementary civics.

<sup>3</sup> The accompanying outline provides, in effect, a course in the problems of democracy with the essential background included. Where a general and systematic course in Civics is taught in the third year of the high school program it may very appropriately be followed in the fourth year by an intensive study of selected political, economic or social problems; but school programs do not usually permit this arrangement.

## The National Council Again

BY PROFESSOR EDGAR DAWSON

The associations of historians, economists, political scientists, geographers, professors of business administration and sociologists, held their annual conventions in the Christmas vacation just passed. At each gathering the question of supporting the efforts of the National Council for Social Studies came up for discussion, and a generous spirit of helpfulness was shown everywhere. There were some members of each association of scholars, however, who showed that they did not understand the young organization; and there were a scattering few who seemed to think more of advancing their particularistic interest than of a thorough-going program for making education effective whatever the effect might be on the claims of any particular subject. This scattering few may safely be ignored; but it is important that all who are ready to co-operate be informed in order that their future attitude may be based on the facts.

"If you want me to be perfectly frank in telling you what they 'thought of you,' I will report that one or two arose and expressed the feeling that the group of teachers of the Social Studies was trying to crowd the other old-fashioned studies out of the curriculum."

"It seemed to some that it was better to work through a commission representative of the present organizations than to create a new one."

"Members of the association thought that the National Council is too indefinite a thing to tie to as yet."

"This thing is growing. Whether we like it or not, it is best to go into it and take a part in shaping it."

"What is the National Council? A little group of hand-picked persons without any particular standing and with no backing. It is not likely that they will accomplish anything in particular."

These statements are not all representative of the attitude of those who attended the meetings; but they come, each from a different association, as straws showing the direction of some of the wind. As to the first, it is frank criticism and frank expressions of opinion that are particularly needed. The others show a failure to understand what the National Council is trying to do. The officers were hand-picked for

the temporary organization, for which a permanent one will be substituted at the next annual meeting, which will take place near the end of February of this year, in Chicago, if it still seems necessary to go on with the organization. But those who were picked were selected in nearly every case because of their official positions,—chairmen of committees of important organizations; superintendents; professors of education of recognized standing; members of the Bureau of Education, etc. No effort of a serious nature has as yet been made for a large membership list, but more than half of the states are represented by paid members all of whom have expressed conviction in no uncertain terms that the National Council fills an important place and must go forward. There have been offers to help in any way possible from all sections of the country. The chief question to be determined as to the future of the organization is that suggested by the second quotation above. Is this the best kind of organization to do the work that needs to be done?

It now seems probable that a commission will be formed representative of the great associations of scholars mentioned above. This movement was stimulated by a conference which met in Pittsburgh at the call of Professor Marshall and which represented economists, sociologists, political scientists, and schools of business. Professor Marshall seemed to think that this commission would support rather than replace the National Council. It may well be that it will form the best nucleus around which to rewrite the constitution at the meeting in Chicago. For the great associations of scholars to unite in a co-operative effort to develop the social studies is a long step in advance and an exceedingly wise one. It grows out of exactly the same thought as did the National Council.

But a commission of scholars is not enough. The scholars must associate with themselves representative school administrators and students of education, including curriculum makers. The university professors cannot shape the program of the schools; and the wiser among them would never think of attempting it. There is little doubt that Professor Marshall would be one of the first to move to invite representa-

tive educators to unite with the commission of scholars for a co-operative effort. Given such a commission as would then be formed, one would have all of the essential elements of the personnel of the National Council as temporarily set up at its first meeting in Atlantic City last March.

What this commission would lack, and what the National Council has, is contact with the teachers. To formulate even an excellent program is a different thing from securing its general adoption in the schools. It seems to be necessary that such a commission act as a central point around which will rally leading teachers throughout the country. These leading teachers will constitute committees of correspondence through which the commission can sound the temper of the country, finding out what is possible in the way of a program. The teachers will also furnish avenues through which stimulus may be given to the adoption of the new program either in principle or in detail.

It will not be sufficient to make the best possible program. One of the things needed is a sustained campaign of education among teachers and school administrators and among university professors of not very warm enthusiasm for the social studies. This campaign will look toward a system of teacher training in this field; the securing of time in the courses of study set up by cities and states, which are not always set up in the light of the best educational science; the writing and publication of texts, manuals, and guides in line with the general program; and in a general way it will look after the interests of the social studies as a group. It will work for the greatest efficiency in this field as the associations or National Councils of teachers of English, mathematics, foreign languages, and the like, with their thousands of members, are looking after the interests of their respective fields.

One thing that stands in the way of some who would like to support the National Council more fully than they do as yet is its name. The title "social studies" is not fully understood; possibly it is not subject as yet to logical definition. Terminology does not seem to some of us important; but it must be recognized that names are the only tags we have for ideas; and that we can understand each other only through words, inadequate as the words may be to convey meaning fully and clearly. Why is the term "social studies" used? Why do those who are back of the Council risk the displeasure of those who confuse the "social studies" with a mixed something that might be thrown together by persons who are, as one critic put it, "characterized by an impartial ignorance of all subjects"?

The name National Council was adopted for the sake of uniformity with the similar organizations of English, mathematics, and other teachers. The term "social studies" was used for lack of a better one,—one that would not be so cumbersome as to hamper facile discussion of the elements of this field.

But the term has a good deal of usage back of it. The Bureau of Education, acting with the National

Education Association, has given currency to it through the distribution of thousands of bulletins, using the term to mean the elements of history, economics, government, sociology and geography as presented in the schools. Under the Commission for the Reorganization of Secondary Education, these subjects are assigned to a "Committee on the Social Studies." States and cities have appointed supervisors and inspectors for the "social studies" in various parts of the country. State departments of education accept the term as a well-known coin of educational discussion. Curriculum makers, who are organizing secondary education into groups of studies, group all of our subjects into one of the six or seven general divisions of high school work and call them the "social studies." It is true that "history and the social studies," "social sciences," and other terms are still frequently used; but there is none so commonly used by alert and progressive school administrators or students of education as is that adopted for the temporary title of the National Council. It seems to be likely that the school administrators and organizers of the theory of education will give more and more recognition to this term. It may therefore be the part of good tactics not to begin a fight on a word when such important differences may later come up over essentials of basic importance. There are some who will say that the expression "social studies" is typical of a vicious educational tendency. If the use of the term would commit the National Council to a vicious educational tendency it should not be tolerated. But it remains to be proved that the expression will necessarily do that.

It is perfectly natural that those who are deeply interested in the effective teaching of history should hesitate to accept this comparatively new expression. Until recently all high school departments dealing with the subjects here under consideration were called "history" departments although they handled "civics" and economics as well as history; all of the teachers were "history" teachers; in no normal schools or teachers colleges were there anything but history teachers in this field. Such leaders as Professors Henry Johnson and R. M. Tryon, who have devoted their lives to the making of history a really educational implement, might well hold off from an organization which does not carry history,—the word "history,"—in its title. They, however, have shown no disposition to do this; they have come forward with generous support of the effort to bring order out of the present chaos. For the historians to join in this undertaking is a sacrifice of a strong strategic position; and in doing so they can be actuated by no motive other than a willingness to sacrifice present advantage to permanent service.

The geographers have had in the elementary school a position almost as strong if not equally as strong as that of the historians in the high schools. It is therefore natural for them to hesitate to accept this new label. For generations they have been striving to set up effective teaching of geography; and they may naturally ask why one can not call most of the work "geography," since geography is now expand-

ing into quite a comprehensive field and is asking for adequate room in the high school.

The political scientists have for at least a century and a quarter been making some effort to secure effective teaching of government (Elhanan Winchester's *Political Catechism*, 1796); and they have gradually been securing recognition, first for "civil government" and then for "civics." To a few advocates of "civics," the term "social studies" is as agreeable as a red shawl would be to the king of a herd of Texas Longhorns. Despite the sustained efforts of the advocates of government, one of them sadly wrote very recently that this subject was still treated as "a poor relation of history"; and all who are familiar with present educational practice know how inadequate is the present arrangement for training future citizens in sound principles of political organization.

The economists have more recently entered the field of secondary education, though some of those who discuss the subject neglect to mention the efforts made as early as the Jacksonian period to put some economic concepts into the elementary course in government. Recently as they have begun their serious campaign, it is manifest that the economists are advancing with rapid strides. The popular demand that future citizens be introduced to careful thinking about private property, taxation, currency, business organization and industrial interdependence, will not rest content with any organization of the secondary school system which does not give full recognition to what the economists have to contribute.

Still more recently the sociologists have asked for a place in the sun, and they have not rested content with asking. An inquiry as to the sales of such books as Towne's *Social Problems*, and the works of Professor Ellwood and Dr. Burch, will convince the most skeptical that sociological material, however it may be defined, is securing a firm foothold in many schools.

When the specialists in ethics, anthropology, and group psychology will write to the principals and ask that "courses" in these subjects be introduced one is unable yet to say; but when bankers ask that "courses" in banking be set up for all pupils, the principals may expect almost any demand for this or that special subject.

The principal and the superintendent are at their wits' end. There are two things they may do. They may retreat to the elective system, and say: "Offer any courses you wish if pupils wish to take them. We wash our hands of the whole problem of differentiation. Let the young American follow the bent of his own genius." And the young American in the school will do as his older brothers have done in the college; he will seek the easiest teacher, or the most agreeable teacher, or the course that does not come at inconvenient hours. Certain it is that the particular pupils who most need certain social studies are the ones who will avoid these social studies. If the principal does not wash his hands of his responsibilities, as few of them will, he will turn to the curriculum maker and ask him to put into the high school course as much of the best social studies as he can, getting the best help he can in making his selection.

The wise curriculum maker will then seek conference with representative members of the various social studies; and what will the conference be called? What will the mass of material for consideration be called? It cannot, in common practice, be called history-economics-geography-government-sociology. If the curriculum maker cannot secure co-operation from the scholars, he may turn to some energetic and self-confident young person who is unhampered by the narrowing effects of hard work, and ask him to make up a course of study in this division of the field of education. This is what is likely if the scholars stand on their dignity and on the separate and particularistic rights of their several subjects.

If the best instruction in the social studies is to be prepared, those who know the contributions which sciences can make to the knowledge of the pupils must join hands with those who know the limitations imposed by school administration and work it out through a joint effort. They will have to follow a path that runs between two extremes. One of these extremes is represented by a few educators who claim that it is impossible to conduct a school without any differentiation of subject matter whatever. These educators would take a group of children and permit them to wander more or less at will through human knowledge as one would wander through a museum, dabbling a little in this collection and a little in that, with no plan and no definite purpose. The other extreme is represented by the more conservative scholars, who, having in mind the dangers of the first extreme, stand pat on a demand that their several subjects be taught. To avoid both of these extremes, the scholars and the educators must meet together and lay all of the cards on the table,—the cards which represent arguments for educational skill and the cards that represent arguments for subject matter and definite knowledge. The advocates of the older subjects may win something by following the methods of the well-known American card sharp and bluffing it through, claiming everything. But there is a vital difference between playing a game of poker and offering a course of study to the schools. The card player may win a large stake by a lucky bluff, and he may take it home with him if, perchance, some of the fellow players do not change the field of action and hold him up on the way home. But the curriculum maker must continue to play after he has won the stake. He must ultimately submit the value of his hand to the school administrators throughout the country, and he will get only such consideration as the face of the cards entitle him to.

There is no worthy advocate of any subject of study who wants more time in the school than the argument for his subject will justify. The present difficulty with the social study program grows out of the fact that advocates of some subjects do not understand what other subjects have to offer; and the advocates of various subjects have not stated their program definitely and simply enough for school administrators to understand it and adjust it to the programs advocated by other subject-defenders. One thing that is sadly needed is that the historians state simply what their particular contribution to secondary

education is. This has been done thoroughly by Professor Johnson in his book on the Teaching of History, but a brief and more manageable statement might be useful in the present emergency. The contribution offered by the advocates of government has never been definitely and concisely stated; neither has that of economics or of geography or of sociology.

Professor Marshall seems to be working rapidly to such a statement for economics. Geography and sociology both seem a little disposed to make claims that are so wide that they make agreement difficult, but under the leadership of such men as President Atwood for geography and Professor Ellwood and Professor Finney for Sociology, it is likely that workable definitions of these subjects may be obtained. It will then probably be found that the leading difference between the various subject-advocates is that, while they are handling much of the same material, they are working from different points of view and with slightly different emphasis as to educational objectives.

Given a clear statement of the educational objectives and some general principles for the selection of material the curriculum maker, working with the scholar, can patiently approach the organization of a complete and cumulative course of study incorporating all of the objectives and enough of the subject matter for all practical purposes. No one knows today whether government had best be taught separately from history or from economics. No one knows whether a single year of a history of civilization can be worked out for one of the high school strata. If any one knows the solution of either of these problems, he does not know the same solution as do many of his colleagues. In the dark as we are on many such questions, we are working at cross purposes with much lost motion and not a little distressing misunderstanding. The labors of the National Council are actuated by the belief,—a belief which lies at the basis of all argument for real democracy,—that nearly all men differ, when they do differ, because of the limitations imposed by tradition and environment; and that if they can be brought into conference in an atmosphere of reason and open-mindedness, any problem may be brought within striking distance of a solution.

A separate paragraph must be made of the following statement. The use by the National Council of the term "social studies" did not arise from any prejudice in favor of a hash of all kinds of subject matter thrown together either at random or under the stimulus of the temporary and fleeting inclination of children. The term "social studies" was adopted as the only one now available to represent that group of subjects which are not mathematics nor language nor natural science nor practical arts, but which must be put into the school program and which has the unifying principle that the entire group deals with the relation of men with their fellow men in their efforts to live together in an organized society with such wisdom as they have been able to accumulate in their sojourn on the earth. Follow Dr. Dewey in his famous library catalogue and call all of it sociology

if one will; or call it history, the experience of the ages. Any title on which educators and scholars will agree is good enough. The important thing is to come to an understanding about a workable terminology, and to go to work on the essentials.

The National Council will hold its next meeting in Chicago in February of this year. The temporary constitution will then be replaced by a permanent one, based on the experience of this year. It is assumed that nearly all readers of the HISTORICAL OUTLOOK are interested in the problems toward which the National Council is working. They are urged to write to the secretary at the address given below, as frankly as possible, their views as to the kind of organization which is most likely to bring order out of our educational chaos. Letters which reach him before February 21 will be placed before the meeting.

EDGAR DAWSON, *Secretary*,  
671 Park Avenue, New York City.

#### TENTATIVE PROGRAM

Second Annual Meeting of the National Council of Teachers of Social Studies.

Saturday, February 25, 1922.

Luncheon Conference at Noon.

Subject, Professor L. C. Marshall's proposed Curriculum for the Social Studies, presented by Professor Marshall.

Discussion by Professor Henry Johnson, of Teachers College; Professor Ross L. Finney, of the University of Minnesota, and Professor Edgar Dawson, of Hunter College.

Tuesday, February 28, 1922,

Three o'clock.

Business meeting.

Adoption of a Permanent Constitution; Election of Officers; Consideration of Policies of the National Council.

More detailed programs will be mailed to members and others.

The Public is invited to attend the meeting on Saturday.

Chairman of Committee on Local Arrangements: Professor G. H. Gaston, Chicago Normal College, Chicago, Ill.

#### Discuss Immigration with Congress

*Outline Study on Immigration and Americanization* by E. W. LOUGHRAN and M. R. MADDEN takes for the question: *Resolved: That legislation to restrict immigration into the United States is impractical, injurious to the industrial development of the country, and unnecessary.*

The issues of debate:

- I. Is it possible to get a good practical restrictive test?
- II. If such a test can be found, would it be for the economic good of the country?
- III. Is the country unable to assimilate immigration arriving at the normal rate?

It is an unbiased study made for school work, with page references on each point of debate.

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## Projects in Citizenship

R. W. HATCH, INSTRUCTOR IN CITIZENSHIP, HORACE MANN SCHOOL, TEACHERS COLLEGE, NEW YORK CITY

### *Citizenship Projects*

Inspiration—information—participation: these are the aims to be constantly held in mind in our training of young citizens; and the greatest of these is participation,—activity—doing the thing. It is a fundamental law of the learning process that "we learn the reaction that we make." Inspiration or emotional concepts about our country will not carry over alone. Information or fact content is not enough; we must somehow get these young citizens to live their civics in concrete situations every school day, in every subject, in school and out. Right habit formations are what we are after. All the activities of the school contain potential citizenship material. The skillful teacher will "uncover situations" that bring these activities to pass, and then guide the conduct of these young citizens in the society in which they move. "Learn by doing" is one of the soundest pedagogical precepts we have.

You doubtless remember the story that Petrarch tells of the old Greek who attended the games at Olympia. He was late in arriving and found it difficult to find a seat in that crowded amphitheatre. He was old and poorly dressed, and the Greeks jeered and poked fun at him as he passed from group to group vainly looking for a seat. At last he came to the Spartans, who rose as one man, and made room for him. On observing this action the spectators broke into applause, whereupon the old man observed: "All the Greeks know what it is good to do, but only the Spartans practice it."

*Citizenship in the Grades:*<sup>1</sup> There should be no formal "course of study" in civics for the earlier grades. The kind of citizenship training that is the aim here does not confine itself into tight compartments, arranged in sequence, grade by grade. While there is little need of formal content there is great need of developing the civic virtues.

Whatever course in citizenship training is outlined for these years let us not fall into the old error of parceling out the civic virtues and distributing them through the grades. It would be a sad return to the old formal "preachment" method if any teacher with such a course in her hands should feel that her particular grade was where "honesty" or "courtesy" should be taught; or that in "covering the course" she was under the necessity of inculcating "obedience" or "truthfulness" in six lessons. The mere statement of such a situation is proof of its absurdity; yet in the hands of the untrained teacher just such results are likely to happen. Whatever the course of study, let us trust that there will be enough free play so that the teacher may seize the vital situation, incidental to all her class-room work, and drive in her citizenship training through concrete applications, "in school and out."<sup>2</sup> A course of study that cannot be thrown out of the window when a real situation enters in at the door is a clog and a hindrance in the training of

citizens. Sometimes as teachers we seem to forget the importance for developing character in the many contacts and reactions that come in just living together.

The following illustration of citizenship training in a real social situation occurred in our VI grade last year. The class was unduly eager, so eager that they constantly interrupted the one who had the floor. The customary methods of repression were tried but this lack of proper courteous behavior persisted. Earlier in the year the grade had organized itself into a Civic League with officers and constitution. At one of their League meetings arrangements had been made to put over an old-fashioned New England town-meeting. The warrant was drawn up and posted in due form. The various articles dealt with real situations in their school community, and one of them read as follows:—"To see what action the League will take in regard to courteous attitude in class." When the Moderator called up this article there was considerable open discussion; the worth-whileness of it was generally recognized and a resolution was passed to the effect that henceforth the League should be more courteous and mindful of the rights of others. But the matter was not allowed to rest here. A wrong habit must be made over into a right one. There was need of an ideal of courtesy which could only be realized by everyday activity in checking this particular fault—namely, interrupting others. An acrostic was drawn up which read as follows:—

C—consideration  
and  
O—obedience  
U—you  
R—resolved  
T—today  
E—every day  
S—satisfactory  
to  
Y—yourself

This was placed on the board in colored chalk. It was the "ideal which should serve as a conscious guide to conduct." It was their ideal; they felt a responsibility in seeing that it was lived up to. Whenever any member of the group broke over after this it was nearly always sufficient to merely point to the acrostic. This was done either by the teacher or some member or members of the class. The social disapproval of the group soon made itself manifest. We were after a right attitude in a specific case; and it was our hope that the "tendency" to act produced by the ideal would develop into an almost automatic action in accordance with the ideal." There were several especially difficult cases. Old habits are not easily changed, and made over into new. One hundred per cent. perfect was never realized. But the method employed was justified by its results.

It is in these early years that we should make our main drive for the civic virtues,<sup>3</sup> fair-play, co-operation, orderliness, self-reliance, courtesy, obedience, initiative, truthfulness, etc. Much has been written recently regarding the relationship between habits, ideals and attitudes. To show this relationship consider the case just recorded concerning courteous attention to others. An outline of the procedure involved in this case, and in others of a similar nature would be somewhat as follows:

#### CIVIC VIRTUE—COURTESY

##### I. *Specific Habits:*

- A. To be considerate and not interrupt others.
- B. Not to run through the halls, jostling and bumping into others.
- C. To be considerate of the rights of others during the assembly period.

##### II. *The Ideal:*

- A. Consists of the specific ideas "A," "B" and "C."
- B. Class or group discussion *e. g.*, the Civic League in order to get a group recognition of the worthwhileness of "A" or "B" or "C."
- C. A formulation of the ideal ("the Generalized Ideal") Methods: Definition of Courtesy to be drawn up by class and put in a conspicuous place in the room, *e. g.*,
  - (1) "Courtesy is to do or say the kindest thing in the kindest way." IV Grade.
  - (2) "Express consideration for others." Senior H. S.
  - (3) The acrostic worked out by VI Grade.

##### III. *Attitudes:* "The tendency to act produced by the generalized ideal should develop into almost automatic action in accordance with the ideal."

- (1) Specific habits "A," "B" and "C" once formed should harmonize with the "ideal."
- (2) The "ideal" should "serve as a conscious guide to conduct especially in novel and critical situations." Bagley: "The Educative Process."
- (3) In some cases the building of the ideal is largely based on emotional reactions; in others definite informational content should be employed.

*Citizenship in the High School:* In the Junior and Senior high schools our problem changes with the pupils and with the materials at our disposal. We are now more in the field of "knowledges" and consequently there is need of greater definiteness in the course of study. It would be a grievous blunder if any of our young citizens should leave the VIIIth grade without a knowledge of our forms of government. Later on should come the study of comparative government, and the student should realize as he advances with the course that he will be expected to help in the solution of some of the many problems of a political, social and economic nature that perplex our people today. "Democracy's High School" should have a course in its Senior year in these "Present Day Problems." In the study of history during these years there are many fine opportunities for "Training for Citizenship," to use the phrase of the old

Committee of Seven, which history teaches have not availed themselves of as fully as they might.<sup>4</sup>

In these later years also are splendid materials and opportunities for direct citizenship training in the every-day activities of the school and community. The General Association, The Student's Council, The Debating Societies, Literary and Social Clubs, Organizations for Charitable Purposes, Participation in Community Activities, Self Government in the School as exemplified in Supervised Study Halls; Traffic Squads, Election of Class officers, etc., etc.

*The General Method:* It is the purpose of this article to describe in some detail a few of the many projects to be found both in class-room procedure and in the ever-widening fields of school and community. A project, according to the definition given by Prof. Kilpatrick, is "any unit of purposeful activity where purpose is present as an inner urge which fixes the aim, guides the process and furnishes the drive." The four steps vital to the carrying out of a project are<sup>5</sup> purposing, (2) planning, (3) execution, and (4) judgment.

I do not intend to go into detail regarding the pedagogy behind the project method. I wish merely to give in this article a sufficient amount of the frame work into which these citizenship projects are fitted, so that the teacher in the field can get an insight into the general method. I am using a great deal of typical illustrative material, for most of us like to have our general principles followed by specific instances.

The socialized recitation—if not spelled in capitals—adapts itself extremely well to this kind of work. Teacher and pupils are co-workers, the teachers serving the threefold mission of "guide, councillor and friend." From certain articles in this and other school journals of recent date, one might judge that a lesson could go on just as well or even better with the teacher silent in the rear of the room or absent altogether. For instance, we read of the "dethronement of the teacher." This is far from my understanding of the function of a teacher in a project class. Throughout, his trained mind and mature judgment should be the guiding force. Emerson in his "Education" has the right word for us here. "Respect the child, respect him to the end, but also respect yourself. Let him find you so true to yourself that you are the impertable slighter of his trifling." Each project is like an airplane flight. Much thought must be given to the take-off and great care as to the spot where you intend to land. The sector you are covering is a very definite one, and if you are to cover it with understanding there must be no aimless wandering or figure-cutting while on your flight. All this involves much teacher activity and careful organization of all the materials necessary to a successful conclusion of any project.

*Type Projects:* Projects in citizenship may be grouped as follows: Type A: Projects involving extra-curriculum activities; Type B: Incidental projects; Type C: Projects in class-room instruction. Examples of the first type are such school activities as the student council, a supervised study hall, traffic

squads, school election, etc. The second type of projects arise out of real situations in class, school or community, like the one on "Courtesy" already mentioned. Projects of the third type are devised for the purpose of getting both knowledge of and intelligent participation in the forms and functions of government. An example of this will be found in the projects on Comparative Government, or the Naturalization of Tony Da Prato. Frequently these types merge. The incidental needs the informational and both should result in participation.

#### TYPE A, EXTRA CURRICULA PROJECTS

"Action is the goal of civics teaching." This fundamental principle of Community Civics is to be found in the editor's preface of Mabel Hill's helpful book on "The Teaching of Civics." Dr. Suzzallo goes on to say: "The child who has tried to participate in any given situation will have a sense of reality about it that can never be had from conversation or books."

The student should be led to participate in the real civic activities of his community. He is a citizen now and has very definite present-day responsibilities. He should be given opportunities to live his civics.

#### *Class Nominations and Elections*

The following plan has been used with success by classes in large city high schools:

##### I. *The Clerk*

The civics teacher acts as clerk.

##### II. *Nomination Papers*

All candidates must be placed in nomination by means of nomination papers. These papers are secured and signed in the following manner. Anyone wishing to take out a nomination paper must go to the clerk and state that he wishes to take out a nomination blank for . . . . ., giving the name of the candidate and the office. The clerk then looks up the record of the candidate and if he or she is found to be in regular and satisfactory standing, prepares a nomination paper. Twenty-five (25) signatures (This number, of course, may be adapted to size of class) are necessary to put a candidate in nomination, and they must be *bona fide* signatures of members of the class, with no duplicates or false names. Every voter may sign as many nomination papers for each office to be filled as there are persons to be elected thereto, and no more.

##### III. *Time of Filing Nomination Papers*

All nomination papers must be in the hands of the clerk for inspection not later than . . . . .

##### IV. *The Election*

The election will take place on . . . . . The class will go to the city polling-booth, Ward 3, Precinct 2. (If the civics teacher cannot secure a regular polling-booth with ballot-box near the school, he can rig up a polling-booth in one of the school-rooms.) The ballots will be cast according to the regular Australian method, using printed ballots. Each voter should see to it that she is duly enrolled on the class or voting list. Specimen ballots will be posted in each class-room.

##### V. *The Officials*

The Warden, Deputy-Warden, Clerk, Deputy-Clerk

and Checkers will be appointed by the Clerk from members of the class.

##### VI. *The Polls*

The polls open at . . . . and close at . . . .

#### *Parliamentary Practice*

There are few exercises more helpful in the work of Community Civics than training in parliamentary practice.

At first, of course, the organization must be simple and the rules of procedure not too complex. Let the class or group organize itself into a Lyceum with appropriate name and object and a simple constitution. Officials could then be elected according to the Australian system, and the regular order of business put through. The question for discussion should, for the great part, be matters of their own knowledge and community of interest. It is to be doubted if any training we can give in our schools is more helpful in developing individuality and leadership than the training that comes from debating and parliamentary practice.

An unresponsive class when organized along the lines suggested above, oftentimes surprises the teacher in its readiness to take hold of work of this sort. And, of course, the social attitude which is developed, reacts favorably in the regular classroom work.

A helpful little book showing how a club may be organized with a clear statement of the rules of procedure, typical constitution, etc., is "The Student's Handbook of Parliamentary Law," Frederick Leighton, Oswego, N. Y. Price 20 cents.

#### *The Debating Society or School Congress*

The Debating Society or School Congress is a well-nigh indispensable adjunct to the work in civics. Much training of lasting value may be secured in these school forums. Live topics, uppermost in community life, may be taken up more freely here than in the class-room. These societies give excellent training in parliamentary practice, self-control, ability to think on one's feet, and forcefulness in speaking before groups of people. The members may stage to good advantage such things as a Mock Trial, a New England Town Meeting, a Court of Naturalization, a Session of Congress or a meeting of the City Council. The work can be made inspirational as well as informational.

An excellent illustration may be found in the dramatization of the Constitutional Convention. Have individuals represent the leading delegates, presenting with actual speeches the points of view of such men as Washington, Franklin, Madison, Hamilton, Randolph and others, on the great questions at issue. There are many interesting sidelights that may be worked in to relieve the speeches from Madison's Journal. In this manner, as they discuss the great compromises they will come to see as never before just how the parts came to fit together; how it was necessary as Franklin reminded them "to plane a little off both boards if they wanted to make a good joint." This method will make the Convention real and the Constitution something more than a dry compilation of laws and regulations. For guidance use

"The High School Debate Book," by Robbins, published by A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, Ill.; "Both Sides of 100 Public Questions," by Shurter-Taylor, published by Hinds, Noble & Eldridge; "Essentials of Argument," by Stone & Garrison, published by Henry Holt & Company; "Debating for Boys," by Foster, published by The Macmillan Company (especially suggestive).

#### Current Events

History has on its seven league boots and events of world-wide importance are moving forward a century at a stride. This constantly changing panorama is whirling about us so rapidly that we need to pause and consider these events during these momentous days with care. One-fifth of the time devoted each week to the social studies might well be spent on current events. The daily press, weekly periodicals and monthly magazines are all helpful.

A class in Modern European History recently organized as follows:

1. One period a week was given to Current Events.
2. They sent for four different periodicals and made the selection of the one they liked best.
3. The members of the class each bought a copy at reduced club rates; several bought in pairs.
4. A Steering Committee put an outline of the lesson on the board two or three days in advance, and on Current Events day conducted the exercises and led the discussions.

This class was particularly interested in the cartoons, pictures, and maps. The significance of a few of the best of the cartoons was called for each lesson. Much material was found for class discussion and formal debate. The periodicals were taken home and the pupil found himself capable of taking an intelligent part in family discussion.

Scrap-books were kept containing pictures, cartoons, and materials of special value.

The work in Current Events leaves a definite and lasting impress. The pupils come to see events from the viewpoint of citizens.

"No democracy can expect straight thinking at election times and in industrial and political crisis from a public that is not trained while at school to read regularly, to enjoy and think straight about current events."—J. H. BARNES, Ch. of the Institute for Public Service.<sup>6</sup>

Recently a class of mine in Modern Problems took for its study, the following project: "Obstacles in the way of Disarmament: Can they be overcome?" We have adopted the following method of procedure. The class is divided into "delegations" representing the various groups invited to the Conference. The meeting was opened by one of the students impersonating President Harding. She gave an epitome of his welcome to the delegates, and read the fine paragraph near the close of the address which begins: "Gentlemen of the Conference: the United States welcomes you with unselfish hands." Then "Mr. Balfour" arose and presented the name of Mr. Hughes as Secretary of the Conference. "Mr. Hughes" then gave his now famous proposals which were listed definitely on the board under the caption of "The U. S. pro-

gram on limitation of naval armament." They were now ready to hear discussion from the delegates of other countries represented, and we listened to the views of "Mr. Balfour," "Premier Briand," "Senator Schanzer," "Baron Kato," "Minister Sze," etc. In this manner the points of view of all the nations represented were brought before the entire class in a realistic way; and we were now ready for a more specific and intelligent discussion. This class takes the *Literary Digest* regularly and, of course, the daily papers were much in evidence. Each day new aspects are presented; pictures and cartoons brought in for the bulletin board; the history of former conferences are studied for purposes of comparison; and policies and programs discussed. There is a real drive to this project, and a great deal of individual and group activity, which leads in its turn to further activity. They are building up a considerable body of informational content, and are coming to realize, I believe, the significance of Governor Miller's words regarding this conference when he declared it to be "the promise of a new era." And what is more important still that in this coming "new era" they, as citizens, are to play a determining part. We are now discussing a suggestion by some of the students that we give a chapel exercise, presenting a cross-section of the conference so to speak, for the benefit of the entire High School.

#### Projects on the Side

**Cartoons:** Have a "Cartoon Corner" and each recitation have some one pupil responsible for bringing in a cartoon, explain its political significance, and then place it on the bulletin board. Encourage original cartoon drawing.

**Posters:** Posters should be collected and studied by the class. Let them discuss the "appeal" of each poster and try their own hand at poster-making.

**A Civic Camera Club:** The purpose here is for those having cameras to take pictures in and about their own community which illustrates civic and uncivic aspects.

**Watch the Spot:** A board reserved for the purpose of contributing some special civic thought for the day or week, e. g. "Now God be thanked who matched us with this hour."

**Current Events Bulletin Board:** Place board either in class room or main corridor, and have a new committee appointed each week. Must be both attractive and worth-while.

#### Slogans:

1. On small buttons in class or school colors:
  - a) D.T.D.—Don't Talk; Do.
  - b) U.C.—Useful Citizen.
  - c) S.Y.C.—Serve Your Community.
2. On Sleeve-bands in class or school colors.
  - a) sTs—Senior Traffic Squad.
  - b) sAc—Students Council within School letter.
3. Single words:—
  - a) Co-operation
  - b) Service
  - c) Comradeship
  - d) Onward
  - e) Loyalty

## 4. Phrases:

- a) Be Prepared
- b) We Serve
- c) For School and Country

## 5. Acrostics:

a.

Consideration  
Obedience  
U—You  
Resolved  
Today  
Everyday  
Satisfactory to  
Yourself

b.

Stamina  
Efficiency  
Responsibility  
Vision  
Initiative  
Co-operation  
Education

c.

Optimism  
U  
R  
  
Broadmindedness  
E  
S  
T  
  
Effort  
A  
C  
H  
  
Determination  
A  
Y

## Creeds:

## A. The Young Athenian's Oath.

(Oath taken by the boys of old Athens when they were admitted to the army.)

## B. The American Creed by William Tyler Page.

(The clauses in this creed are taken from our great state papers, *e. g.*, The Constitution, Declaration of Independence, Lincoln's Gettysburg Speech; Washington's Farewell Address, etc.)

## TYPE C. PROJECTS IN CLASS-ROOM INSTRUCTION

Some of the questions that naturally arise at this point to one who teaches civics are:—Can all my work in civics be organized around projects? Can we "cover the ground" in this way? If not, would it be wise to try out a few? How much time can we afford to give to any one project? How may they be initiated? etc. The answers to all these questions and many more equally pertinent would require another article. It probably would be wiser at first just to try out a few, like those suggested here. As

the teacher becomes more skillful in "setting the scenery," more tactful in guiding the progress of the project, and the class more able to collect and organize their materials then more and more of the work could be so adapted, until eventually the entire course of study for that year would revolve around projects. All this is pioneer work, with all the hardships and rewards that go to the trail-blazer.

The following illustrations are taken in each instance from actual projects that I have tried out in my own classes, embracing the three fields of Community Civics, Government taught in connection with U. S. history, and Modern Problems.

*The Project on Comparative Government:*

To show now the study of current events plus the note-book form a seed-bed for future promising projects, I give the following. When the Prince of Wales visited New York the girls became quite interested and many got glimpses of the "prince charming." I picked up the trail of the prince in their civic note-books, and, biding my time, one day dropped this question: "Why did so many of you wish to keep the picture of this young fellow?" "Why, he is the Prince of Wales!" "What of it?" "That means he is going to be King of England some day." "Is that so very important?" "Of course, he will have a lot of power and live in royal state." "How much power will he have?" The chorus, not quite so confident, "Oh, a lot." "As much as our President?" Chorus mixed and uncertain. And so they were led into deep water where they had to swim for it. There was an immediate desire to find out how much power the King of England actually has today. This led in its turn to a contrast with the President of the United States; and eventually that discussion led to a point by point comparison of the governments of the two countries. A large comparative chart, 15x35 inches, was drawn up by each member, and when the French elections came off, study of the French government was in order and that in its turn was added to the chart. On a recent examination of these charts I found that several countries, *e. g.*, Japan, Switzerland, Brazil, Spain, Italy had been added to the others out of their own initiative.

*Naturalization*

*Project*—Tony Da Prato—Italian, twenty-two years old, two years a resident of U. S.; occupation, chauffeur, desires to become a citizen. What must he do?

*Approach*—What are some of the questions Tony would ask? Where will I go? Where is nearest Naturalization Court? Where is and what is a Federal Building? How will I get there? How much will it cost? What kind of questions will the judge ask? Have I been here long enough? Am I old enough? Must I take witnesses? How long before I can vote? Must I be able to read and write English? Where can I learn? What country will my wife and children belong to? Must I renounce allegiance to King Emmanuel? (dual allegiance) If I go back to Italy, would I have to serve in the Italian army?

Note:—Get whatever information the class has. "Pool their interests." Put the question on the board and use those not answered as a basis for next day's lesson.

From the Fourteenth Amendment they will discover that citizenship is the gift of the nation, and so be able to direct Tony to the Federal Building (Post Office). Distribute the first day copies of pamphlet "Naturalization Laws and Regulations," U. S. Printing Office, Department of Labor, Bureau of Naturalization, May, 1918. Make note of steps in the process in Civics Note Book.

Have a question box in charge of a member of the class for contributions from the class on naturalization questions.

*Investigation.* Books for the pupil—

1. Civics for New Americans—Hill & Davis.
2. Constitutional Law—Cooley—authority.
3. American Government and Politics—Reading No. 62—Beard.
4. Citizen and Republic—Woodburn and Moran.
5. Naturalization—New International Encyclopedia.
6. Americanization and Citizenship—Webster.
7. Does Americanization Americanize—Fino Speranza, *Atlantic Monthly*, Feb., 1920.
8. Training Teachers for Americanization—Bull. 1920, No. 12, Supt. of Public Doc., Washington, D. C. 10 cents.

*C. Outside Reading* (Each pupil read and report on one).

1. A Far Journey—Abraham Rhibany—His naturalization process.
2. From Alien to Citizen—Steiner.
3. On the Trail of the Immigrant—Steiner.
4. The Making of an American—Jacob Ries.
5. The Promised Land—Mary Austin.

*First Step:*

First Papers. Tony must apply at Federal Building for Declaration of Intention Papers, from the Clerk of the Naturalization Court. Fee, \$1.00.

Questions:—

1. What questions will be asked him?
2. What will his status be?
3. What protection has he?

*Second Step:*

Waiting period. Since he has been two years a resident, he has three years to wait for final papers. He is a denizen, a man without a country. Always an alien until he is a citizen.

Questions:—

1. Can he vote? Where?
2. What is the difference between citizenship and suffrage?
3. What must persons do, born of American parents outside of the U. S., to receive the protection of the U. S.?
4. If a child is born on mid-ocean, his father an Italian who has taken out his first papers in the U. S., his mother an American, what is the nationality of the child?
5. If an American woman marries a Frenchman

she becomes French. If later they are divorced, does she immediately regain her American citizenship?

Assignment.

Citizenship of women and children.

Basis of citizenship in different countries.

*Third Step:*

Final Papers.

After three years, as Tony is over eighteen years old—he takes out "Petition for Naturalization" at the Naturalization Court, paying \$1.00. Two witnesses must be present to swear to statements listed below.

*Fourth Step:*

Hearing.

Ninety days after second papers—he must appear at the Court for the "Hearing" with two witnesses, citizens, who must testify as to

- (1) Tony's residence in U. S. (five years)
- (2) Tony's residence in State (one year)
- (3) Tony's good moral character
- (4) Tony's sympathy with fundamental principles of our government
- (5) Tony being neither anarchist nor polygamist.

Tony must be able to answer any questions on government and history of our country the judge may ask.

*Fifth Step:*

Oath of allegiance.

*D. Responsibility:*

1. What did the man mean when he said, "It costs the immigrant \$25 rather than \$5 to take out citizenship papers"?

2. How might we help in this matter?

3. What attitude should we take towards the immigrant? (See Shaufllex's poem, "Scum of the Earth.")

4. We are all immigrants or the children of immigrants. Within the class, discover the different racial groups.

5. Readiness to accept the best that immigrants have to offer and give them your best. Willingness to help others get their naturalization papers by coaching them.

6. List some of the leading immigrants.

Debate: Resolved (1) That the Canadian immigration laws are better than those of United States. (2) That immigration should not be restricted by a literacy test.

7. Let the class dramatize A Naturalization Court. Test:

I. List steps in Naturalization Process.

II. Special cases. (From the Question Box.)

III. 1. What citizenship of the wife if the husband becomes naturalized?

(a) if she comes to the U. S. with him?

(b) if she remains in the old country?

(c) if she secures a divorce?

(d) if he dies, and she is living in U. S.?

2. Citizenship of minor children born in the old country.

(a) if father does not become naturalized?

(b) if they remain in the old country?

(c) if the father dies after taking out his first papers?

- (d) if the child was born in U. S.?
3. Can a Chinese or Japanese become a citizen of the U. S.?
4. Are all citizens voters? Are all voters citizens? Explain.

#### *Dramatization Projects*

##### *1. A Court of Naturalization*

The following plan may be used to exemplify the process of naturalization: Turn the auditorium or classroom into a courtroom. The teacher or some selected pupil may act as a judge,—two clerks to act as recorders. Any number of applicants may be prepared to take out "First" and "Second" papers. Some are ready for "The Hearing" and "The Taking of the Oath of Allegiance." Every now and then some applicant comes forward with a special case. The Judge announces all questions in dispute, and determines the status of the applicant.

When the time comes for the Judge's charge and the taking of the Oath of Allegiance, a delegation of pupils, carrying the flag, can march in to stirring music. If the school has a cadet company or a scout troop, this can be worked out very effectively. Then one of the pupils might give an excerpt from President Wilson's speech before newly naturalized citizens, given at Philadelphia, May 10, 1915; the exercise to close with the singing of "America."

The dialogue is natural, and can easily be worked out in advance. The questions asked should be taken from the regular forms: "Declaration of Intention" and "Petition of Naturalization." A very helpful book is: "Civics for New Americans," Hill and Davis, Houghton, Mifflin Co. The Appendix of this volume contains information on "How to Become a Citizen of the United States."

2. *The Immigrant Gateway.* (The Representation of the entrance of Immigrants into the United States, and of the Examination conducted by officials of the Immigration Service to determine their fitness to enter), by Reuben Breed. The Congregational Home Missionary Society, 156 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

(Forty pages of text with illustrations and diagrams, prepaid, 25c. It reproduces the arrival of immigrants to Ellis Island, with full dialogue, suggestions for making costumes, and directions for producing. With very few rehearsals it may be made a vivid and lifelike reproduction of the examination of immigrants by officials and is capable of being elaborated into an effective pageant. Immigration outfits may be secured at small cost.)

##### *3. The Constitutional Convention:*

Turn the class into a parliamentary body, and let individuals represent the leading delegates, presenting with actual speeches the points of view of Washington, Franklin, Madison, Hamilton and others on the great questions at issue.

4. *The Second Continental Congress: Four Episodes.*

- (1) The Continental Congress in Session.
- (2) The Committee appointed to draw up the Declaration.
- (3) Thomas Jefferson's Midnight Inspiration.

(4) The Report of the Committee.

5. A New England Town Meeting or a County Court Day. (See Fiske: Civil Gov.)

6. The Signing of the Mayflower Compact. See the Bradford History.

7. A Cabinet Meeting in Washington's, Jackson's or Lincoln's administration.

8. A Reproduction of "The Great Triumvirate" in action.

9. A Reproduction of "The Lincoln-Douglass Debates."

10. *Makers of the Flag.* Follow suggestion of Secretary Lane in his speech on the Making of the Flag. (See Pearson & Kirchny: Essentials of English Upper Grades, American Book Co.) A large flag hanging from the back of the stage with a girl dressed as Liberty concealed behind it. Then pupils who have performed some daily act of service in their community pass before it and are greeted by the Flag, *e. g.*,

- (1) A girl on the way to school who has not been absent or tardy for the entire term.
- (2) A boy who performed some act of courtesy to strangers met on the street.
- (3) A girl who helped to sell thrift stamps.
- (4) A girl who cheerfully helped mother about the house.
- (5) A boy who did his "bit" in a clean-up or Safety-First Campaign.
- (6) A boy who worked faithfully in his home garden.

These individuals may be followed by a group demonstration.

- (a) A clean, honest game of basket-ball where co-operation enters in.
- (b) An episode showing courage and resourcefulness on a Boy Scout or Girl Scout hike.

*An Approach to the Study of The Constitution of the United States.*

#### THE XVIII AMENDMENT.

##### *I. The stage setting and approach.*

Even though the class selects its own project and may not see the hand of the teacher guiding it in its selection, there are very few projects set in which the teacher has not consciously planned his presentation of the matter to the class in such a way that he can feel fairly sure that the project selected will have the desired informational content. In this case the instructor set the stage by reading an extract from a speech of Dr. Butler.

"We have not since the emotional effect of the Civil War passed away, done any effective and widespread work in teaching the fundamental principles of American government and life to the youth of the country. We have taught them almost everything else, including the mechanics of the government and some of the practices of Citizenship, but the underlying theories of the Constitution we have passed by as self-evident, or not in the need of teaching. This has been a grievous mistake."

A discussion of this quotation bred a general desire to study some of these "Underlying Theories."

How shall we go at this study?

To help the class solve this new problem the instructor offered them two different viewpoints.

1. The Gladstone statement that the American Constitution was the greatest document ever "*struck off at one time* by the brain and hand of man."

2. The quotation from Kipling:

"All we have of freedom, all we use or know  
This our fathers bought for us long, long ago.

Ancient rights unnoticed as the breath we draw,

Leave to live by no man's leave underneath the law."

Was the Constitution "struck off at one time?"

Comments on statements 1, and 2 were diagrammatically represented on the blackboard showing that our American Constitution pointed backwards to epochs in the democratic development of the Colonies and further backward to epochs in the constitutional development of England. And that amendment since the first ten pointed to a gradual crystallizing of new ideas of democracy into law, the end of which we could not see.

II. Since this Constitution of ours is a record of democratic development, the next natural question is, where shall we begin our study? To help answer this question an extract from Thorndyke's Education was read:

"The educational value of finding the causes of what is and the causes of these causes, is so very much superior to the spurious reasoning which comes from explaining a record already known."

A vote following the discussion showed that the class favored almost unanimously the Thorndyke method of procedure and it was decided to begin the study of the fundamental principles of the Constitution by finding how they were involved in the Eighteenth Amendment.

1. The Instructor presented a timely cartoon to the class showing the burial of John Barleycorn with one of the mourners declaring that his grief was not over the loss of his beer, but of his Constitutional Rights. What did he mean?

Some reading and discussion showed that the so-called Rights which are violated were:

- I. The right of a state to determine the issue for itself.
- II. The right of the government to take over and destroy private property.
- III. The statement that the amendment was not legally adopted
  - (a) Due to the absence of many voters over seas,
  - (b) Due to a technical illegality in the wording.
- IV. The right of a general state referendum to overrule legislative action.

From these the individual students selected the line they wished to follow up.

At their disposal were:

1. A carefully selected bibliography suggested by the instructor, including Cooley on Constitutional Law, Ashley, Wilson, Bryce, Woodburn and Moran.
2. Newspaper clippings.
3. Current newspapers and magazine articles.
4. Readers' Guide.
5. Home Point of View.

The four points were developed as follows:

- I. The right of a state to determine the issue for itself.
  1. Where did we first see the States Rights theory advanced?
  2. What is the difference between the compact theory and the national theory?
  3. Concerning what interests do you think States Rights should operate?
  4. What was the effect upon the willingness of the North to fight for Union, of the use as a school-room recitation of Webster's "Liberty and Union" speech?
  5. How does the Eighteenth Amendment violate States Rights more seriously than other Amendments?

After a thorough discussion in which the above were the prominent questions discussed, the class, sitting as a court, voted almost unanimously (one dissenting vote) that the States Rights issue was not sufficient grounds for declaring against the amendment.

II. The right of the Government to take over and destroy private property.

1. Has the Government ever a right to take over or to destroy private property?

Discussion touched on the following:

- (a) The right of eminent domain.
- (b) The right to condemn and destroy dangerous buildings.
- (c) The right to destroy disease-infected property.
- (d) The Thirteenth Amendment.
- (e) The property rights involved in the Eighteenth Amendment.

The class divided on the matter of compensation and the vote of the "Supreme Court" showed that a majority of the "justices" favored some compensation.

III. The Eighteenth Amendment not legally adopted.

- a. Many absent voters.

The discussion developed the following questions:

1. Could important legislation cease because of absent voters?
2. Could the men have voted directly?
3. Could they have influenced their representatives?
- b. Due to technical illegality in the wording.

Opinions of lawyers and legislators were read. The discussions were too legal for the young people and to them seemed petty quibbling.

#### IV. The right of a state referendum to overrule legislative action on the amendment.

The class did not know what the Initiative and Referendum were. Here was a chance to teach the matter of the I. and R. not as a formal subject but because it was needed for a definite purpose. The mechanics of the I. and R. were discussed and a quiz set with the result that in a surprisingly short time and with considerable thoroughness the class gathered the facts concerning these institutions were able to discuss thoughtfully their merits and demerits and to decide to their own satisfaction whether the referendum should be used against the amendment. The "Supreme Court" said "No."

How now should the class be examined on the work done on the topic?

To follow the general idea and let the class set their own examination seemed the best plan and questions were asked for. They were brought in and their merits were discussed, some were eliminated and others combined resulting in the following examination:

The XVIII Amendment:—

1. How was it adopted?
2. What is it?
3. List arguments for and against.
4. What is your own point of view? Give reasons.

Out of the discussion of this part of the topic arose several excellent opportunities for debate, including:

1. Resolved: That the regulation of the liquor traffic should be determined by each state acting independently.
2. That the Eighteenth Amendment should be repealed.

The discussion of the Eighteenth Amendment raises these questions: What should be the attitude of the teacher toward controversial questions? To what extent—if any—should he express his own point of view? Should he be neutral? Can he be neutral? What should be his attitude toward dissenters? What are really the big things he hopes to get out of such a discussion? Is it better for him to give his class a body of opinion or a set of views or the ability to weigh evidence; listen respectfully to the views of the other fellow; learn to use available material, sift evidence, and arrive at conclusions open-mindedly?

#### *Projects in Citizenship*

The young citizen must train his citizenship muscles if he would win for America.

(All the civic activities listed below have actually been carried out by civics classes or clubs in the public schools.)

1. An anti-litter campaign
  - (a) on school-grounds;
  - (b) in district or home street.
2. Clean-Up week.
 

(A committee appointed by the civics class

should report for study to the general city committee.)

3. Secure vacant spaces for gardening purposes.
  1. Form agricultural clubs.
4. A campaign against the tussock moth, gypsy moth or common tent-caterpillar.
5. The making of an outdoor running track, tennis court, or hand-ball court.
6. Arbor Day exercises. A bit of landscape gardening applied to (a) the school yard; (b) the home.
7. Building of bird boxes and baths.
8. Building of cement walks around the school yard.
9. A campaign against bill-boards.
10. A campaign for clean speech.
11. A campaign against the cigarette.
12. A Safety-First campaign.
13. A Drive for better personal hygiene. Be specific.
14. A campaign against the abuse of school property.
15. A petition to the proper authorities to close a street for recreation purposes.
16. The building of a skating-rink.
17. The building of an extension to boys' work-shop.
18. The control of line in filing.
19. Taking charge of (a) lunch room; (b) study rooms.
20. A campaign against tardiness.
21. A thrift campaign: plan individual budgets.
22. The wiring of cheerful, helpful notes to fellow pupils who are ill; a visiting committee.
23. The planning and management of class entertainments.
24. The collection of second-hand clothes, books or toys for proper distribution to nurseries, hospitals and worthy homes.
25. The preparation of baskets for Thanksgiving dinners to the needy of the neighborhood.
26. A Community Christmas tree.
27. Entertaining children at a hospital.
28. A chapter in the Junior Red Cross.
29. The dressing of dolls for poor children.
30. Join the Red Star League (against cruelty to animals).
31. Acting as guides or Junior police whenever or wherever a large crowd is to be handled.
32. Exhibits of the products of (a) school gardens; (b) sewing circles; (c) shop articles; (d) canning clubs, etc.
33. The cleaning up of some spot of civic or historic interest, erection of an appropriate tablet or marker.
34. A campaign to fight the white plague; purchase Christmas seals.
35. Campaign against fire; (a) fire-drill; (b) inspection of school; (c) the building of fires; (d) how to ring in an alarm; (e) playing with matches; (f) leaving things on fire-escapes.
36. Campaign against unnecessary noise in the street.
37. The formation of a school bank.
38. A campaign for a "Safe and Sane" Fourth of July.
39. Campaign for the proper observation of all patriotic or civic holidays, in school and out.

40. Organization and election of officers for (a) A Junior League; (b) Students' Council; (c) Debating Society, Practice parliamentary procedure.
41. Prepare a heavy cardboard map of town or city. Place colored pins on public buildings (a) firehouses; (b) police stations; (c) dispensaries, etc.
42. The beautifying of a little park in the town or city.
43. The making of a guide book of the vicinity.
44. Fixing up the "old swimming hole" or a baseball diamond.
45. Appropriate celebration of Constitution Day.
46. A social survey of the city.
47. A "swat the fly" or mosquito campaign.
48. Beautifying and adorning the school building; correlating with all school subjects.
49. Campaign against unsportsmanlike conduct at games.
50. Appoint committees to inspect (a) grocery stores; (b) butcher stores; (c) ice cream parlors, etc.
51. Should one like early "Fathers" return to his native town, plan a civics trip that you would want to take him on. What things would you not wish him to see?

<sup>1</sup>Teaching Citizenship in the Grades. T. L. Moore. *Teachers' College Record*. May, 1921.

<sup>2</sup>Citizenship in School and Out, For Elementary Grades I-VI. Dunn and Harris, D. C. Heath & Co.

<sup>3</sup>Education for Initiative and Originality. *Thorndike Teachers College Bulletin*. Price 15c.

<sup>4</sup>Teaching Modern History by the Project Method. R. W. Hatch. (1) *Historical Outlook*, June, 1920; (2) *Teachers' College Record*, November, 1920.

<sup>5</sup>Dangers and Difficulties of the Project Method and How to Overcome Them—A Symposium. Kilpatrick, Bagley, Bonser, Hsieh and Hatch. *Teachers' College Record*, September, 1921.

<sup>6</sup>Recently The Institute for Public Service conducted a nation-wide poll to impress upon the schools and the general public the importance of studying current events. In this test college upper classes averaged only 60%; the Freshmen's average was 53%; the same as the high school graduating classes. Juniors in the high school rank highest with 55% and Freshmen 35%; for the grammar school Seniors the average was 42%; and for seventh-grade pupils 30%. This test may be secured from The Institute of Public Service, 1125 Amsterdam Avenue, New York City.

## Reference Studies in Oriental and Early European History (to 1700)

WM. R. LINGO, HEAD OF DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY, JAMESTOWN HIGH SCHOOL, JAMESTOWN, N. Y.

(Continued from the January Number)

### XIII. THE COMING OF NEW FORCES IN WORLD HISTORY

1. Botsford, G. W.—Source Book of Ancient History.
  - a) Early history of Christianity ..... 521-526
  - b) The Mohammedans and the Frankish Power ..... 574-583
2. Bryce, James—The Holy Roman Empire. The East Roman Empire ..... 321-351
3. Davis, W. S.—Readings in Ancient History (Rome). The later empire and the Christians... 285-304
4. Emerton, Ephraim—Introduction to the Study of the Middle Ages.
  - a) Rise of the Christian church ..... 93-113
  - b) Germanic ideas of law ..... 73-91
  - c) Franks and Mohammedans ..... 115-134
  - d) The monks of the West ..... 135-149
5. Emerton, Ephraim—Medieval Europe.
  - a) The papacy in the Carolingian period 42-61
  - b) The monastic clergy ..... 555-581
6. Firth, J. B.—Constantine.
  - a) The persecution of the church ..... 12-38
  - b) The Edict of Milan ..... 106-114
  - c) The empire and Christianity ..... 330-356
7. Irving, Washington—Alhambra.
8. Irving, Washington—Conquest of Granada.
9. Kingsley, Charles—The Roman and the Teuton.
  - a) The forest children ..... 1-16
  - b) The clergy and the heathen ..... 176-208
  - c) The monk a civilizer ..... 209-244
10. Munro, D. C.—Source Book of Roman History. Christianity and stoicism ..... 164-177
11. Munro and Sellery—Medieval Civilization.
  - a) The hippodrome at Constantinople. 87-113
  - b) Byzantine civilization ..... 212-223
  - c) Missions in Gaul and Germany .... 114-136
  - d) Monks of the twelfth century .... 153-158
  - e) Moslem civilization in Spain ..... 224-239
12. Ogg, Frederic Austin—Source Book of Medieval History.
  - a) The early Germans ..... 19-31
  - b) The development of the Christian church ..... 78-96
  - c) The rise of Mohammedanism ..... 97-104
13. Seignobos, Charles—History of Medieval and Modern Civilization.
  - a) The Germans and Christianity .... 16-26
  - b) The Byzantine Empire..... 27-38
  - c) Mohammedanism ..... 39-46
14. Tappan, E. M.—Old World Hero Stories (Part II). Teutons and their myths ..... 19-24

15. Webster, Hutton—Readings in Ancient History.  
The Germans ..... 261-268
  16. Wilmot-Buxton, E. W.—The Story of the Crusades.  
a) Story of Mohammed the prophet... 9-25  
b) Mohammed as conqueror ..... 26-33  
c) The spread of Islam ..... 34-44
  - XIV. THE FRANKISH KINGDOM AND THE PAPACY
  1. Adams, G. B.—Civilization During the Middle Ages.  
a) The Franks and Charlemagne .... 135-165  
b) After Charlemagne ..... 166-188
  2. Barry, Wm. F.—Papal Monarchy from St. Gregory the Great to Boniface VIII.  
a) Charlemagne, patrician of Rome ... 89-99  
b) The Holy Roman Empire ..... 100-113
  3. Bemont and Monod—Medieval Europe.  
a) The Arabian Empire ..... 135-166  
b) The Do-nothing kings ..... 167-191  
c) The empire of the Franks ..... 192-210  
d) Decadence of the Carolingians .... 211-227
  4. Creasy, Sir Edward—Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World.  
The Battle of Tours ..... 159-168
  5. Davis, W. S.—Readings in Ancient History (Rome).  
a) Clovis and the Franks ..... 331-340  
b) Early Middle Ages and Charlemagne 341-379
  6. Einhard—Life of Charlemagne.
  7. Emerton, Ephraim—Introduction to the Study of the Middle Ages.  
a) The Franks to 638 A. D. .... 62-72  
b) Martel to Charlemagne ..... 151-179  
c) Charlemagne King of the Franks... 180-213  
d) Foundation of the Medieval Empire 214-235
  8. Emerton, Ephraim—Medieval Europe.  
Empire of Charlemagne ..... 3-40
  9. Griffis, Wm. Eliot—Young People's History of Holland.  
Charles the Great ..... 37-43
  10. Munro and Sellery—Medieval Civilization.  
Faith and morals of the Franks ..... 60-86
  11. Ogg, Frederic Austin—Source Book of Medieval History.  
a) The early Franks ..... 47-67  
b) Beginnings of the Carolingian dynasty ..... 105-107  
c) The Age of Charlemagne ..... 108-148  
d) Era of the later Carolingians..... 149-180
  12. Sedgwick, H. D.—A Short History of Italy.  
a) Coming of the Franks ..... 40-48  
b) Charlemagne ..... 49-56  
c) From Charlemagne to Nicholas I... 57-66  
d) The degeneration of Italy ..... 67-78
  13. Seignobos, Charles—History of Medieval and Modern Civilization.  
Government of the barbarian kings... 47-62
  14. Tappan, E. M.—Old World Hero Stories (Part II).  
a) Charles Martel ..... 38-47  
b) Charlemagne ..... 48-53
  15. Webster, Hutton—Readings in Medieval and Modern History.  
Charlemagne ..... 9-21
- SECOND TERM  
XV. FEUDALISM
1. Adams, G. B.—Civilization During the Middle Ages.  
The Feudal system ..... 189-223
  2. Adams, G. B.—The Growth of the French Nation.  
Breaking up of Charlemagne's empire and the rise of the feudal system... 47-53
  3. Bemont and Monod—Medieval Europe.  
Feudalism ..... 246-267, 377, 423, 450, 480
  4. Bryce, James—The Holy Roman Empire.  
a) Feudalism ..... 122-131  
b) Feudalism in Germany...165, 232, 395, 436
  5. Emerton, Ephraim—Introduction to the Study of the Middle Ages.  
Beginnings of the feudal system .... 236-255
  6. Emerton, Ephraim—Medieval Europe.  
a) The feudal institutions ..... 478-508  
b) Organization of the middle and lower classes ..... 509-540
  7. Griffis, Wm. Eliot—Brave Little Holland.  
The feudal system ..... 64-71
  8. Munro and Sellery—Medieval Civilization.  
a) Feudalism ..... 159-201  
b) Chivalry ..... 240-247
  9. Ogg, Frederic Austin—Source Book of Medieval History.  
The feudal system ..... 203-232
  10. Seebohm, Frederic—Era of the Protestant Revolution.  
Feudal system and forces breaking it up 16-21
  11. Seignobos, Charles—History of Medieval and Modern Civilization.  
a) The feudal system ..... 63-85  
b) Cities of the Middle Ages ..... 164-172  
c) Transformation of chivalry ..... 192-204
  12. Seignobos, Charles—The Feudal Regime.  
a) The peasants ..... 3-26  
b) The nobles and higher clergy .... 27-53  
c) Usages and government ..... 54-68
  13. Webster, William Clarence—General History of Commerce.  
The Hanseatic League ..... 71-80
  14. Wilmot-Buxton, E. M.—The Story of the Crusades.  
The rise of chivalry ..... 45-53
  15. Zimmermann, Helen—The Hansa Towns.
- XVI. GERMANY, THE CHURCH AND ITALY IN THE MIDDLE AGES
1. Adams, G. B.—Civilization During the Middle Ages.  
The empire and the papacy ..... 224-253
  2. Barry, Wm. F.—Papal Monarchy from St. Gregory the Great to Boniface VIII.  
a) Henry IV at Canossa ..... 206-227

- b) Normans, crusades, investitures . . . 228-244  
 c) Frederick Redbeard and his time . . . 263-281  
 d) Enter Innocent III and Frederick of Sicily . . . 282-295  
 e) St. Francis—the friars—the Lateran Council . . . 311-332  
 f) Philip the Fair and Pope Boniface—Dante's vision . . . 391-420
3. Bemont and Monod—Medieval Europe.  
 a) Germany and Italy . . . 268-285  
 b) Emperor and pope . . . 286-300  
 c) The Guelfs and Hohenstaufen . . . 301-317  
 d) Triumph of the papacy . . . 319-335  
 e) Roman Church in the thirteenth century . . . 488-505  
 f) The church and heresies . . . 506-514
4. Birkhead, Alice—Heroes of Modern Europe.  
 The two swords . . . 9-18
5. Bryce, James—The Holy Roman Empire.  
 a) Theory of the medieval empire . . . 89-120  
 b) Saxon and Franconian emperors . . . 132-152  
 c) Struggle of the empire and the papacy . . . 153-166  
 d) Frederick Barbarossa . . . 167-181  
 e) Fall of the Hohenstaufen . . . 204-228
6. Emerton, Ephraim—Medieval Europe.  
 a) Revival of the Roman Empire on a German basis . . . 90-114  
 b) Conflict of the investiture . . . 240-269  
 c) Hohenstaufen policy in Germany and Italy . . . 271-312  
 d) The secular clergy . . . 541-555
7. Green, John Richard—A Short History of the English People.  
 The friars . . . 147-152
8. Jessop, Augustus—The Coming of the Friars.  
 a) Coming of the friars . . . 2-52  
 b) Daily life in a medieval monastery . . . 113-165
9. Ogg, Frederic Austin—Source Book of Medieval History.  
 a) Conflict over investiture . . . 261-281  
 b) The friars . . . 360-379  
 c) The papacy and the temporal powers . . . 380-397  
 d) The empire in the later Middle Ages . . . 398-416
10. Sedgwick, H. D.—A Short History of Italy.  
 a) Struggle over investitures . . . 89-101  
 b) Triumph of the papacy . . . 114-124  
 c) St. Francis . . . 125-132
11. Seignobos, Charles—History of Medieval and Modern Civilization.  
 The church in the Middle Ages . . . 86-109, 204-210
12. Thayer, W. R.—A Short History of Venice.  
 a) Venitian civilization: investiture . . . 212-227  
 b) Venitian civilization: life and art . . . 228-249
13. Webster, William Clarence—General History of Commerce.  
 The Italian cities from the crusades to the renaissance . . . 55-62
- XVII. THE EAST AND THE CRUSADES
1. Adams, G. B.—Civilization During the Middle Ages.  
 The crusades . . . 254-273
2. Archer and Kingsford—The Crusades.  
 a) Introduction . . . 1-25  
 b) Peter the Hermit and Urban the Pope . . . 26-40  
 c) Close of the crusades and conclusion . . . 419-451
3. Bemont and Monod—Medieval Europe.  
 The crusades . . . 348-374
4. Bryce, James—The Holy Roman Empire.  
 The crusades . . . 164-165
5. Bulfinch, Thomas—The Age of Chivalry.  
 King Richard and the third crusade . . . 319-342
6. Day, Clive—A History of Commerce.  
 Character and commercial aspects of the crusades . . . 86-88
7. Emerton, Ephraim—Medieval Europe.  
 The crusades . . . 358-397
8. Froissart, Jean—*Boy's Froissart* edited by Sidney Lanier.  
 A crusade against the Saracens (1390) . . . 382-421
9. Griffis, Wm. Eliot—Brave Little Holland.  
 The Dutch crusades . . . 79-98
10. Munro and Sellery—Medieval Civilization.  
 a) Character and results of the crusades . . . 248-256  
 b) Material for literature from the crusades . . . 269-276
11. Ogg, Frederic Austin—Source Book of Medieval History.  
 The crusades . . . 282-296
12. Seignobos, Charles—History of Medieval and Modern Civilization.  
 Oriental civilization in the West . . . 110-119
13. Tappan, E. M.—Old World Hero Stories (Part II).  
 The crusades . . . 136-151
14. Thayer, W. R.—A Short History of Venice.  
 Venice and the crusades . . . 45-70
15. Webster, William Clarence—General History of Commerce.  
 The crusades . . . 49-54
16. Wilmot-Buxton, E. M.—The Story of the Crusades.  
 a) Story of Peter the Hermit . . . 54-67  
 b) Story of the fall of Acre . . . 251-264  
 c) Effect of the crusades . . . 276-280
- XVIII. FRANCE THROUGH LOUIS XI (1483)
1. Adams, G. B.—Civilization During the Middle Ages.  
 The formation of France . . . 305-331
2. Adams, G. B.—The Growth of the French Nation.  
 a) The first Capetians . . . 54-72  
 b) The foundation of France and steps toward absolutism . . . 73-107  
 c) The Hundred Years' War . . . 108-135  
 d) France begins to be a European power . . . 136-146

3. Bemont and Monod—Medieval Europe.
    - a) French royalty (987-1270) ..... 391-420
    - b) Institutions of Capetian royalty... 421-444
  4. Cheyney, Edward P.—Readings in English History.
    - a) The first half of the Hundred Years' War ..... 223-278
    - b) Joan of Arc ..... 289-296
  5. Creasy, Sir Edward—Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World.
    - Joan of Arc's victory at Orleans ..... 208-226
  6. Creighton, Louise—Stories from English History.
    - Battle of Cressy ..... 85-91
  7. Day, Clive—A History of Commerce.
    - France: survey of commercial development ..... 229-239
  8. De Quincy, Thomas—Joan of Arc.
  9. Emerton, Ephraim—Medieval Europe.
    - Growth of the French monarchy ..... 400-433
  10. Green, John Richard—A Short History of the English People.
    - a) The Hundred Years' War ..... 217-271
    - b) Joan of Arc ..... 271-281
  11. Kendall, E. K.—Source Book of English History.
    - Hundred Years' War ..... 92-113
  12. Ogg, Frederic Austin—Source Book of Medieval History.
    - Hundred Years' War ..... 417-443
  13. Rolfe, Wm. J.—Tales from English History.
    - Edward the Black Prince at Crecy and Poitiers ..... 19-34
  14. Seignobos, Charles—History of Medieval and Modern Civilization.
    - Progress of royalty ..... 120-125, 173-191
  15. Tappan, E. M.—Old World Hero Stories (Part II).
    - a) Hugh Capet ..... 103-105
    - b) Edward the Black Prince ..... 194-199
    - c) Joan of Arc ..... 199-203
  16. Terry, B. S.—History of England.
    - a) Opening of the Hundred Years' War 355-380
    - b) Second stage of the Hundred Years' War ..... 381-402
    - c) Third stage of the Hundred Years' War ..... 443-449
    - d) Last stage of the Hundred Years' War ..... 450-457
  17. Wilmot-Buxton, E. M.—Jeanne D'Arc.
- XIX. ENGLAND TO 1485
1. Adams, G. B.—Civilization During the Middle Ages.
    - England and the other states ..... 332-349
  2. Bates and Coman—English History Told by English Poets.
    - Various selections ..... 18-230
  3. Bateson, Mary—Medieval England.
    - a) The nobility ..... 24-42, 161-193
    - b) Tillers of the soil ..... 96-122
    - c) The king and his court .... 140-160, 281-301
    - d) Farming ..... 247-259, 376-393
    - e) Baronial households ..... 302-329
  4. Bemont and Monod—Medieval Europe.
    - England from the ninth to the thirteenth century ..... 445-466
  5. Besant, Walter—Story of King Alfred.
  6. Bulfinch, Thomas—The Age of Chivalry.
    - Edward the Black Prince ..... 380-399
  7. Cheyney, Edward P.—Introduction to the Social and Industrial History of England.
    - a) Growth of the nation to middle of the eighteenth century ..... 1-30
    - b) Rural life and organization ..... 31-52
    - c) Town life and organization ..... 57-74
    - d) Medieval trade and commerce ..... 75-94
    - e) Black Death and the Peasants' Rebellion ..... 96-134
  8. Cheyney, Edward P.—Readings in English History.
    - a) Early Saxon England 400-830..... 35-56
    - b) Later Saxon England 830-975..... 57-82
    - c) Danish and Norman conquests 975-1071 ..... 83-101
    - d) England under the Normans 1066-1154 ..... 102-136
    - e) Foundations of national unity 1154-1216 ..... 137-187
    - f) Formation of a united English nation 1216-1337 ..... 188-232
    - g) The Wars of the Roses ..... 296-305
  9. Cook, Albert S.—Asser's Life of King Alfred.
    - a) The Danes ..... 3-5, 15-34
    - b) Problems, administration, etc. .... 35-65
  10. Creasy, Sir Edward—Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World.
    - Battle of Hastings (Senlac) ..... 171-204
  11. Creighton, Louise—Stories from English History.
    - a) Conversion of the English ..... 1-5
    - b) The death of the holy Bede ..... 8-10
    - c) King Alfred's love of study ..... 10-11
    - d) Stories of the Normans ..... 19-34
    - e) Battle of Lewes ..... 60-70
    - f) Edward II and his queen ..... 71-75
    - g) Scottish raid ..... 80-85
    - h) The kingmaker ..... 109-116
  12. Cross, A. L.—A History of England and Great Britain.
    - a) Coming of the Anglo-Saxons ..... 25-39
    - b) The Danes and Alfred the Great. 42-46, 72-74
    - c) The Anglo-Norman kings ..... 76-105
    - d) Henry II ..... 107-119
    - e) Richard I ..... 120-132
    - f) John ..... 133-145
    - g) Henry III ..... 147-165
    - h) England under the first three Edwards ..... 210-228
  13. Freeman, E. A.—A Short History of the Norman Conquest.
    - a) The coming of Duke William ..... 64-75

- b) The great battle ..... 76-85  
 c) How King William won the whole kingdom ..... 93-107  
 d) How King William ruled the land.. 118-127  
 e) Results of the Norman Conquest .. 134-147
14. Freeman, E. A.—Life of William the Conqueror.  
 a) Harold's oath to William ..... 51-62  
 b) Negotiations of Duke William ..... 63-81  
 c) William's invasion of England .... 82-99  
 d) Conquest of England ..... 100-121  
 e) Settlement of England ..... 122-146
15. Freeman, E. A.—Old English History for Children.  
 a) How the English became Christians 42-62  
 b) The reign of King Alfred..... 113-138  
 c) The reign of King Harold ..... 297-338  
 d) The interregnum ..... 339-348
16. Froissart, Jean—Boy's Froissart edited by Sidney Lanier.  
 a) War between Scotland and England 18-46  
 b) Battle of Poitiers ..... 223-256  
 c) The Jacquerie ..... 262-263  
 d) Battle of Crecy ..... 148-158, 166-169
17. Gardiner, S. R.—A Students' History of England.  
 a) Roman Britain ..... 10-26  
 b) Jutes and Saxons ..... 26-37  
 c) Struggle with the Danes ..... 55-67  
 d) England and Normandy ..... 78-100  
 e) William I ..... 101-114  
 f) Henry II and Richard I ..... 138-171  
 g) King John ..... 173-185  
 h) Henry III ..... 185-208  
 i) Edward I and Edward II ..... 208-231  
 j) Reign of Edward III ..... 231-265
18. Green, John Richard—A Short History of the English People.  
 a) The English conquest ..... 7-16  
 b) Wessex and the Danes ..... 44-52  
 c) The West-Saxon realm ..... 53-62  
 d) The Danish kings ..... 63-67  
 e) The Conqueror and the Norman Conquest ..... 74-87  
 f) Henry the Second ..... 104-112  
 g) John and the Great Charter..... 122-132  
 h) Henry the Third ..... 141-147  
 i) The Barons' war ..... 152-160  
 j) Conquest of Wales ..... 161-169  
 k) Conquest of Scotland ..... 181-193  
 l) Scotch war of independence ..... 211-216  
 m) Wars of the Roses ..... 281-288
19. Hill, Mabel—Liberty Documents.  
 a) Magna Carta ..... 9-33  
 b) Confirmation of charters ..... 42-48
20. Hughes, Thomas—Life of Alfred the Great.  
 a) The Danes ..... 59-69  
 b) Alfred on the throne ..... 82-91  
 c) Alfred's government ..... 135-195
21. Innes, A. D.—History of England for Use in Schools.  
 a) The Danish conquest ..... 16-19  
 b) Battle of Hastings ..... 22  
 c) English institutions before the conquest ..... 22-25  
 d) The conqueror ..... 26-34  
 e) Government of Henry II ..... 55-57  
 f) King John and Magna Carta ..... 65-67  
 g) Henry III ..... 68-75  
 h) Edward I ..... 78-92  
 i) Edward II ..... 93-100
22. Jessop, Augustus—The Coming of the Friars.  
 a) Village life six hundred years ago.. 53-112  
 b) The Black Death in East Anglia.. 166-261
23. Jusserand, J. A.—English Wayfaring Life in the Fourteenth Century.
24. Kendall, E. K.—Source Book of English History.  
 Wars of the Roses ..... 114-128
25. Kingsley, Charles—Hereward the Wake.
26. Kipling, Rudyard—Puck of Pook's Hill.
27. Lytton, Lord—Harold the Last of the Saxon Kings.  
 Battle of Hastings ..... 359-415
28. Lytton, Lord—The Last of the Barons.
29. Ogg, Frederic Austin—Source Book of Medieval History.  
 a) Alfred the Great in war and in peace 181-195  
 b) The ordeal ..... 196-202  
 c) The Norman Conquest ..... 233-244  
 d) Magna Carta ..... 297-310
30. Scott, Sir Walter—Ivanhoe.
31. Seignobos, Charles—History of Medieval and Modern Civilization.  
 Institutions of England in the Middle Ages ..... 147-159
32. Synge, M. B.—Social Life in England.  
 a) Saxon, Dane, Norman ..... 31-73  
 b) An age of promise and dawn of luxury ..... 75-98  
 c) Depopulation: the Black Death ... 99-108  
 d) Church and people ..... 123-133
33. Tappan, E. M.—Old World Hero-Stories (Part II).  
 a) King Alfred the Great ..... 72-76  
 b) William the Conqueror ..... 86-93  
 c) Magna Carta ..... 111-117  
 d) Country life and town life in the Middle Ages ..... 125-134
34. Terry, B. S.—History of England.  
 a) Danish Wars ..... 57-77  
 b) Conquest of England..... 145-166  
 c) Growth of popular rights ..... 230-248  
 d) The Great Charter ..... 249-265  
 e) The new era ..... 317-333  
 f) Independence of Scotland established ..... 337-341  
 g) Wars of the Roses ..... 466-493
35. Trevelyan, G. M.—England in the Age of Wycliffe.

(To be continued in the next issue)

## Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROF. J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL,  
TEACHERS' COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

*Robert Curthose, Duke of Normandy.* By Charles Wendell David. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1921. xiv. 271 pp. \$3.00.

This gratifying full account of Robert Curthose gives us an acquaintance with an interesting historical personage and an intimate touch with both the occident and the orient at one of the greatest periods of human history. For Robert was the eldest son of the great William, Duke of Normandy, by whom he as a boy had been given the nickname of "Short-boots." Self-indulgent though he was and lacking the energy requisite to greatness he had, nevertheless, a long and stirring career that comprised rebellion against his father, defeat and exile, the inherited rule of Maine and Normandy, long, unsuccessful strife with his brother William Rufus for possession of England, active and honorable participation in the first crusade, the loss of his hereditary possessions and a long period of captivity to another brother, Henry I of England. Professor David's principal reliance has been upon the primary sources of which he has made extensive and painstaking use, and he includes not only abundant footnotes, but seven appendices discussing the sources and amplifying some details of his story. It is a scholarly piece of work, indispensable for students of the eleventh and twelfth centuries.—WAYLAND J. CHASE, University of Wisconsin.

*The Manuale Scholarium*, translated by Robert F. Seybolt. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1921. 121 pp. \$1.50.

*The Manuale*, of unknown authorship, dates from the last of the fifteenth century and comprises a series of dialogues between two students of the University of Heidelberg. Their talk is about courses of study, schools of philosophy, university regulations, amusements, women, and various other student interests. One chapter that has been especially often quoted describes the ceremony of initiation of the new student by his fellows. In general the amusements, coarse pranks and jests of the students seem to have been judged by the author to be the most important aspects of University life. One wonders as to these two students, just as also concerning those who originated the verses of *Wine, Women and Song*, whether they were really representative of the medieval student group. Be that as it may, this is our chief source of information about many aspects of medieval university practice and well merits the labor of the translator, especially since only a small portion of it has been put into English heretofore. Professor Seybolt has caught well the spirit of the original and reproduced it faithfully in his translation, to which his abundant notes and full bibliography add value.—WAYLAND J. CHASE, University of Wisconsin.

*Harper's Atlas of American History.* Edited by Dixon R. Fox. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1920. 181 pp. \$2.75.

Professor Fox has done a really valuable service

for students and teachers of American history. In the absence of any recent scholarly atlas for the history of the United States, he has collected the maps scattered through twenty-seven volumes of the American Nation Series. This alone would be well worth while. But the editor has also contributed a very suggestive essay of nine pages on "American History and the Map," and twenty-seven admirable map studies, which include stimulating questions, and much information and interpretative comment to supplement the maps. The exercises involve problems and not mere copying. The editor is not an extremist in his views of geographic influences, though he has a clear appreciation of their weight; and he deals with economic and social, as well as political, factors in American development. Several gaps in the American Nation Series maps limit also the inclusiveness of the *Atlas*, and the failure to include an index is especially unfortunate.

*Coal, Iron and War.* By Edwin C. Eckel. Henry Holt & Company, New York, 1920. 375 pp. \$3.00.

This useful and suggestive volume begins with a ninety-page historical sketch of the growth of modern industrialism in England, America, Germany, and Japan, ending with a summary of the effects of industrialism. This is followed by a good study of the mineral resources that constitute the material basis of industrial civilization, though without using the opportunity to make a definite contrast with the old economic order which was based upon land and agriculture. This is followed by an account of the causes and effects of industrial growth and a discussion of the future of industrialism with special reference to international competition and the relation of industrialism to war. The economic history is on the whole accurate, the few errors being of minor importance. The author takes it for granted that we are in an era of rapid and continuous change. He is open-minded in his investigation and his views are often fresh and suggestive.

## Book Notes

*The Elements of English Constitutional History.* By Professor F. C. Montague, first published in 1893, now appears in a new edition (Longmans, 1920; 244 pp.). Perhaps the best of the very brief introductions to the field, the work suffered somewhat from over-compactness and was growing out of date. The only changes now made seem to be a revision of the account of Magna Carta and a "Note on Recent Constitutional Changes," a scant three pages on the parliament Act of 1911 and the Representation of the People Act of 1918.

Professor J. R. Commons' *Races and Immigrants in America* (1907) is substantially unchanged in the "Revised Edition" (Macmillan, 1920; 242 pp.; \$2.50). The new Introduction, though suggestive, is a mere sketch of fifteen pages, and the text appears to have been altered only in the case of a few figures

and an occasional sentence; but some recent publications are included in the bibliographical lists. The work is a useful one and it is a pity that the statistical tables at least were not extended.

*Bradford's History of the Plymouth Settlement, 1608-1650*, "rendered into modern English" from "the cumbersome forms of the medieval language," by Harold Paget (Dutton, 1920; 353 pp.; \$3.50), was originally published by McBride in 1909 when it bore the name of "Valerian Paget" on the title page. The two editions seem to be identical except that the present Introduction, while preserving the extremely reverent and pious tone of the first, is somewhat less exclamatory and includes a few suitable allusions to the recent war-time entente of America and England. The text is not exactly "a literal translation" as the publishers call it, but it is a simplified and modernized version with "some of the more redundant passages" condensed.

*The Quit-Rent System in the American Colonies*, by Professor B. W. Bond, Jr., is a very thorough, scholarly, and comprehensive study, embracing both continental and island colonies and covering the whole colonial period. It is based upon long study of a wide range of sources, printed and manuscript, in America and England. (Yale University Press, 1919; 492 pp.; \$3.00.)

H. Vast's *Little History of the Great War* (Holt, 1920; 262 pp.; trans. by Prof. Raymond Weeks), is useful as a brief sketch of military history by an examiner for the military school at St. Cyr. It is provided with twenty-seven maps, but has no index. The spirit and point of view are illustrated by the contrast of "belligerent Germany" with "pacific France," "Germany, drunk with pride and clad in iron," "gentle France, gay, free, generous, too easily forgetful of the past, always ready to pardon offenses"; the assertion that the Russians were guilty of "the cowardly abandonment of the Allies and the supreme treason of a separate peace," while the Bolsheviks "were a rabble of bandits who had nothing in their favor except their criminal audacity." We are told also that in the United States Germans "taught in the majority of the schools, and according to German methods." (pp. 42, 181-2, 196.)

### Books on History and Government Published in the United States from Nov. 26 to Dec. 31, 1921

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH. D.

#### AMERICAN HISTORY

- Chapman, Charles E. *A history of California; the Spanish period*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 527 pp. \$4.00 net.
- Clark, George Rogers. *The conquest of Illinois*. Chicago: R. R. Donnelly & Sons. 190 pp.
- Dow, George F., compiler. *Two centuries of travel in Essex County, Massachusetts; a collection of narratives and observations made by travellers, 1605-1799*. Topsfield, Mass.: Topsfield Historical Society. 189 pp. \$4.00 net.
- Quaife, Milo M., editor. *The convention of 1846*. Madison, Wis.: State Historical Society. 827 pp.
- Quaife, Milo M., editor. *The struggle over ratification, 1846-1847*. Madison, Wis.: State Historical Society. 716 pp.

- Van Metre, Thurman W. *Economic history of the United States*. N. Y.: Holt, 672 pp. (5 p. bibl.). \$3.25 net.
- Williams, Mary F. *History of the San Francisco committee of vigilance of 1851*. Berkeley, Cal.: Univ. of Cal. Press. 543 pp. (43 p. bibl.) \$5.00.
- Williams, Mary F. *Papers of the San Francisco committee of vigilance of 1851; minutes and miscellaneous papers [etc.]*. Berkeley, Cal.: Univ. of Cal. Press. 906 pp. (2 p. bibl.) \$5.00.
- Wilson, Woodrow. *Division and Reunion; with additional chapters . . . to 1918* by E. S. Corwin. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 455 pp. (2½ p. bibl.) \$1.25 net.

#### ENGLISH HISTORY

- Beer, Max. *A history of British socialism*. Vol. 1, to the birth of Chartism; vol. 2, Chartism. N. Y.: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 361, 413 pp. Vol. 1, \$4.50. Vol. 2, \$5.50 net.
- Bowley, Arthur L. *Prices and wages in the United Kingdom, 1914-1920*. N. Y.: Oxford University Press. 228 pp. \$3.00.
- International Conciliation. *Relations between Great Britain and Ireland; proposals of the British government between Mr. Lloyd George and Mr. De Valera*. N. Y.: Am. Assn. for International Conciliation. 47 pp.
- McKnight, W. A. *Ireland and the Ulster legend*. N. Y.: The Encyclopedia Press, 119 East 57th St. 96 pp. (2 p. bibl.) 50c.
- Shaw, Frederick J. *England and the new era*. N. Y.: Dutton. 246 pp. \$5.00 net.
- Statham, Edward Phillips. *A Jacobean letter writer; the life and times of John Chamberlain*. N. Y.: Dutton. 244 pp. \$5.00 net.
- Terry, Charles S. *A history of Scotland from the Roman evacuation to the disruption*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 653 pp. \$2.50 net.
- Terry, Charles S. *A short history of Scotland*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 266 pp. \$2.50 net.

#### EUROPEAN HISTORY

- Barnes, Harry E. *The social history of the world; an outline syllabus*. N. Y.: Appleton. 126 pp. \$1.25 net.
- Earle, Edward Mead. *An outline of modern history [to accompany Hayes' A political and social history of modern Europe, vol. 2]*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 166 pp. \$1.60 net.
- Lenin, Nikolai. *The new policies of Soviet Russia*. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. 127 pp. \$1.00 net.
- Vopicka, Charles J. *Secrets of the Balkans*. N. Y.: Rand, McNally. 330 pp. \$3.00 net.
- Williams, Albert Rhys. *Through the Russian revolution*. N. Y.: Boni & Liveright. 311 pp. \$2.00 net.

#### THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

- Joel, Arthur H. *Under the Lorraine cross; an account of the experiences of infantry men who fought with the Lorraine cross division in France*. East Lansing, Mich.: [The Author.] 77 pp. \$1.00 net.
- Levinger, Lee J. *A Jewish chaplain in France*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 220 pp. \$1.75 net.
- Mason, Monroe, and Furr, Arthur. *The American negro soldier*. Boston: Cornhill. 180 pp. \$2.00 net.
- Monsley, E. O. *The secrets of a Kuttite; an authentic story of [the siege of] Kut*. N. Y.: John Lane. 392 pp. \$2.50 net.
- Wall, John P., compiler. *New Brunswick, N. J., in the World War*. New Brunswick, N. J.: S. W. Christie Press. \$2.00 net.

#### MISCELLANEOUS

- Ballard, George A. *The influence of the sea on the political history of Japan*. N. Y.: Dutton. 311 pp. \$7.00 net.
- Baw, Mingghien Joshua. *The foreign relations of China*. N. Y.: Revell. 508 pp. \$4.00 net.
- Dillon, Emile J. *Mexico on the verge*. N. Y.: Doran. 296 pp. \$3.00 net.
- Eliot, Charles N. E. *Hinduism and Buddhism; an historical sketch*. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 345, 321, 513 pp. \$30.00 net the set.
- Faure, Elie. *History of Art; ancient art*. Vol. 1. N. Y.: Harper. 306 pp. \$6.00 net.

- Fordham, Herbert G. Maps, their history, characteristics and uses. N. Y.: Macmillan. 83 pp. \$2.50 net.  
 Haase, Adelaide R. Index to economic material in documents of the states of the United States, 1790-1901. Part 2. F to Railroads. Wash., D. C.: Carnegie Inst.

## BIOGRAPHY

- Madison, Lucy F. Lafayette. Phila.: Penn Pub. Co. 371 pp. \$3.50 net.  
 Tarbell, Ida M. The boy scout's life of Lincoln. N. Y.: Macmillan. 247 pp. \$2.00 net.  
 Stephenson, George M. The conservative character of Martin Luther. Phila.: The United Lutheran Pub. House, 9th and Sansom Sts. 143 pp. \$1.20 net.  
 Tumulty, Joseph P. Woodrow Wilson as I knew him. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Page. 553 pp. \$5.00 net.

## GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

- Hayes, Bridget T. American democracy; its history and problems. N. Y.: Holt. 405 pp. (2p. bibl.) \$1.56 net.  
 Pound, Roscoe. The spirit of the common law. Boston: M. Jones. 224 pp. \$2.50 net.  
 World Peace Foundation. Permanent court of international justice, protocol of signature, optional clause and statute judges of the court. Boston: World Peace Foundation. 5c.

## Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

COMPILED BY LEO F. STOCK

## GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

- The Human Race: Its Unity of Origin. J. Arthur M. Richey (*Catholic World*, January).  
 Lord Bryce on Modern Democracies. Carl Becker (*Political Science Quarterly*, December).  
 Xenophon Tragodos. George M. Calhoun (*Classical Journal*, December).  
 Rome of Virgil. Norman W. DeWitt (*Classical Journal*, December).  
 Cicero and His Critics. M. S. Slaughter (*Classical Journal*, December).  
 The East India Trade in the Seventeenth Century. Shafaat Ahmad Kahn (*Journal of Indian History*, November).  
 The Rise of the People's Party in Italy. Giuseppe Quirico (*Catholic World*, January).  
 The Jews and the Russian Revolution: an Inside View. A Recent Resident in Russia (*National Review*, December).  
 How the Central American Union Was Born. Thomas R. Dawley, Jr. (*Current History*, January).

## THE BRITISH EMPIRE

- The Climax of Anti-Imperialism in England. R. L. Schuyler (*Political Science Quarterly*, December).  
 The Problem of Control in Medieval Industry. Austin P. Evans (*Political Science Quarterly*, December).  
 Medieval Medicine. L. F. Salzman (*Cornhill Magazine*, December).  
 Foreign Policy and Royal Influence. J. G. Swift MacNeill (*Fortnightly Review*, December).  
 Empire Partnership. J. A. R. Marriott (*Fortnightly Review*, December).  
 Lord Acton's American Diaries, II. (*Fortnightly Review*, December).  
 The Salt Blood of England. Bennet Copplestone (*Cornhill Magazine*, December). II. Years of Crisis.  
 Ireland's Allegiance to the Crown. Eleanor Hull (*Nineteenth Century and After*, December).  
 Democracy in Canada. George M. Wrong (*Canadian Historical Review*, December).  
 The Gold Colony of British Columbia. Walter N. Sage (*Canadian Historical Review*, December).  
 Nova Scotia's Charter. Alexander Fraser (*Dalhousie Review*, January).  
 The Mughal Government with special reference to the Reign of Jahangir. Beni Prasad (*Journal of Indian History*, November).  
 The Administration of Sher Shah. Ram Prasad (*Journal of Indian History*, November).  
 The Rise and Growth of Khilji Imperialism. Ishwari Prasad (*Journal of Indian History*, November).

## THE GREAT WAR AND ITS PROBLEMS

- England Under the Stress of War. Burton J. Hendrick (*World's Work*, London, December). From "Life and Letters of Walter H. Page."  
 Moltke's Marne Muddle: More Light on the German Supermen. H. W. Wilson (*National Review*, December).  
 The Champagne-Marne Defensive. Capt. J. S. Switzer, Jr. (*Infantry Journal*, December).  
 The St. Mihiel Offensive. Maj. Edwin N. McClellan (*Marine Corps Gazette*, December).  
 The American Expeditionary Forces in Europe, 1917-1918. Maj. Hermann von Giehrl (*Infantry Journal*, December). From *Wissen und Wehr*, July, 1921.  
 The Life and Letters of Walter H. Page. Burton J. Hendrick (*World's Work*, January). V. "Waging Neutrality."  
 All in a Life-Time. Henry Morgenthau (*World's Work*, January). VI. Meetings with Joffre, Haig, Currie, and Pershing.  
 The German Plot in Mexico. Joseph Tumulty (*World's Work*, London, December).  
 Labour in War and Peace. G. D. H. Cole (*Fortnightly Review*, December).

## UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENCIES

- State History, I. Dixon R. Fox (*Political Science Quarterly*, December).  
 The Law of Nations and Treaties of the United States. Joseph W. Stinson (*American Law Review*, November-December).  
 Price Regulation by Legislative Power. Edward G. Smith Relations. Charles K. Burdick (*Cornell Law Quarterly*, December).  
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